A CROSS-LINGUISTIC AND CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY OF STANCE MARKERS IN RESEARCH ARTICLES IN ENGLISH AND KOREAN

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By

Lee Seunghye Yu

Dissertation Committee:

Ho-min Sohn, Chairperson
Mee-Jeong Park
Mary Shin Kim
Sang Yee Cheon
William O’Grady

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this dissertation is to quantitatively and qualitatively analyze ways in which writers construct an authorial stance toward a proposition, drawing on corpora of published research articles on applied linguistics written in English and Korean. The research in this study is based on two sets of corpora in two languages: a corpus of English applied linguistics of 50 research articles, and a corpus of Korean applied linguistics of 50 research articles. From a cross-cultural and cross-linguistic perspective, this study examines the differences and similarities in the use of stance markers between the English and Korean research articles in the field of applied linguistics. By utilizing a quantitative method, the statistical differences and similarities between the English and Korean data are presented. In addition, this study qualitatively explores the linguistic features of stance markers and the cultural rationale behind them in the English and Korean applied linguistics communities. This study focuses on relationships between the linguistic realization and cultural values shared by members of the two academic discourse communities.

Adopting Hyland's (2005b) interactional model of academic discourse as a framework, this study examines (1) quantitative and qualitative differences and similarities in the use of stance markers between English and Korean academic discourse in the field of applied linguistics, (2) linguistic devices and discoursal functions of four stance markers (hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention), (3) grammatical and structural features of stance markers, and (4) cultural motivations and rationales behind the similarities and differences between stance markers employed by members of the English and Korean applied linguistics communities. The findings of this study contribute to a better understanding of English and Korean metadiscourse in terms of cross-cultural and cross-linguistic perspective between the

academic communities of the two languages. This study also provides insight into pedagogical practice for new members of the Korean applied linguistics community and into future research on cross-cultural and cross-linguistic study of the use of metadiscourse in academic writing.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC Accusative particle

DC Declarative sentence-type suffix

TC Topic-contrast particle

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

there are no "neutral" words and forms – words and forms that can belong to "no one"

(Bakhtin, 1981, p. 293)

1.1 Academic Writing as a Social Activity

Academic writing is traditionally viewed as a product or outcome from a product approach, which is "a traditional approach in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text, usually is presented and analyzed at an early stage" (Gabrielatos, 2002; cited in Hasan & Akhand, 2010, p.78). In contrast to a product approach, a process approach to academic writing focuses on authors' cognitive process of externalizing their thoughts. Academic writing is a 'reflective and reflexive' process (Bolter, 1991) of "problem-solving" incorporating planning, generating ideas (i.e., brainstorming) and constructing for an audience (Flower & Hayes, 1997). In response to criticism of the solitary feature of the process approach (Brodkey, 1987; Bruffee, 1989), a genre approach has emerged. Influenced by a sociocultural perspective of writing, the genre approach considers academic writing as a social activity. It focuses not only on language use but also on the social context in which the language is situated because "the power of language can only be understood in the context of social action." (Bazerman, 1988, p. 21).

As the social and cultural context in academic writing has become crucial, the importance of academic writing as a 'discourse community' (Brodkey, 1987; Swales, 1990) has become apparent. While the authors present new research findings, they engage with readers and exchange ideas in accordance with the rhetorical and ritualized conventions of the academic

discourse community. This is the reason why not only second language students (Braine, 2002; Hyland & Milton, 1997) but also native speakers of the language (Lea & Street, 1998; Jones, Turner & Street, 2001) encounter difficulty meeting demands and expectations required by the academic discourse community. Focusing on the interactional feature of academic writing, 'metadiscourse,' which is the linguistic realization of the interaction between authors and readers, has been discussed vigorously (Vande Kopple, 1985; Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 1999; Hyland & Tse, 2004). In addition to the linguistic practice shared by members of the academic discourse community, cultural and social norms play an important role in academic writing, because authors reveal not only their authorial identities (Ivanic, 1998) but also the culture in which the authors have been engaged (Dahl, 2004) in their academic writings. This is where a cross-cultural study as well as a cross-linguistic study enters in the field of academic writing.

From a cross-cultural and cross-linguistic perspective, this dissertation explores the linguistic and cultural differences and the similarities in expressing authors' stance toward a proposition between research papers in applied linguistics written in English and Korean. Based on a corpus of research articles in English and Korean, this study focuses on the linguistic conventions and cultural values behind it, which are shared and agreed on by members of the applied linguistics communities in English and Korean. Adopting Hyland's (2005b) interactional model of academic discourse, this study presents quantitative and qualitative analysis of linguistic and cultural features, with the focus being on stance markers used in the research articles. I hope this contrastive analysis reveals insights into the English and Korean academic discourse communities and into the disciplinary discourse community of applied linguistics.

1.2 Research Objectives

As a genre approach has become a prominent notion in the area of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), the genre of academic writing in Korean has received a great deal of attention from members of the Korean applied linguistics community. However, not many studies have been carried out on a rhetorical device for authorial stance-taking. Only a few studies investigated the interpersonal metadiscourse device in academic writing within an academic discourse community. Previous studies in Korean research articles have focused mostly on hedges (Sin, 2006; Y. Shin, 2011; J. Lee, 2012) by applying a qualitative analysis approach. Although these studies provided valuable insight into academic writing in Korean, comprehensive interpersonal devices have been largely unexplored using both quantitative and qualitative analytical methods. In addition to the linguistic features, very little is known about cultural and social aspects in the Korean academic discourse community, and they need to be examined in relation to a cross-cultural comparison to ensure the validity and reliability of the findings.

In this dissertation, I hope to shed some light on both the Korean and English applied linguistics communities, especially the Korean academic discourse community, from a cross-cultural and cross-linguistic perspective. By applying both quantitative and qualitative analysis methods, this study focuses on statistical differences and similarities in the use of stance markers, and on the identification and functions of linguistic devices employed for authorial stance. The analysis of this study also concerns linguistic and cultural comparisons between the English and Korean applied linguistics communities, thoroughly exploring both the linguistic features of the two academic discourse communities and the cultural values behind them.

1.3 Research Questions

The main objective of this dissertation study, thus, is to examine the use of stance markers in academic research articles written in the English and Korean languages in the field of applied linguistics by adopting a cross-cultural and cross-linguistic perspective. The investigation of this study will be guided by the following research questions:

1. How do members of the English and Korean academic communities in the field of applied linguistics use stance markers differently or similarly, and are those differences and similarities statistically significant?
2. What linguistic items do authors employ to hedge and booster the proposition and to express and mention themselves? What are the functions of each stance marker used in research articles?
3. What grammatical and structural features play a role in the use of stance markers between English and Korean academic discourse in the field of applied linguistics?
4. What cultural motivations and rationales lie in the similarities and differences between stance markers employed by members of the English and Korean applied linguistics communities?

Research question #1 concerned the quantitative differences and similarities in the use of stance markers between the English and Korean corpora in applied linguistics. It focused especially on the assessment of the statistical significance of differences between the two sets of data based on both descriptive and inferential statistics. The goal of research question #2 was to identify the linguistic items of four categories of stance markers (i.e., hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention) and to examine the discoursal functions of identified stance markers. Research questions #3 and #4 allowed exploration of the linguistic conventions of the English and Korean

research articles in applied linguistics, and the cultural and social values lying behind the linguistic features agreed upon by members of the two academic communities.

1.4 Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation study comprises five chapters, as follows. In Chapter 1, I establish a foundation for the dissertation by introducing the concept of 'writing as a social practice' and presenting the objective and the research questions of the study.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of i) theoretical background: academic writing as a social practice, academic discourse community, ii) previous literature: metadiscourse and stance in academic writing, cross-cultural and cross-linguistic studies of metadiscourse in academic writing and intra-linguistic metadiscourse study of Korean academic writing. The interactional model for academic writing (Hyland, 2005b), which is the theoretical framework for this study, is also introduced in Chapter 2.

Chapter 3 describes the methodology of this study, including corpus design, text coding process and the corpus tool AntConc 3.5.7 (Anthony, 2018), and it discusses rationales for identifying linguistic items.

In Chapter 4, I present the results of descriptive and inferential statistical analysis, focusing on the statistical significance of differences and similarities between the English and Korean corpora. The statistical limitations are also discussed in Chapter 4.

Based on the framework presented in Chapter 3, Chapter 5 examines authors' use of stance markers in the English and Korean corpora of research articles. It describes the linguistic features shared by members of the English and Korean applied linguistics community, focusing on the frequency of the grammatical category and the discoursal functions of each stance marker. The cultural and social norms in relation to linguistic realization is discussed in Chapter 5.

Finally, in Chapter 6, I summarize the results of the findings presented in Chapters 4-5. The pedagogical implications of this study and suggestions for future cross-cultural and cross-linguistic research are provided in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUNDS

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the theoretical background to and a framework for the present study and to define key terms and concepts related to the study. This chapter first reviews theoretical concepts related to academic writing as a social activity and discusses the theory of discourse community. The chapter then introduces the concepts of metadiscourse and stance in academic writing. The literature review in Section 2.4 focuses on metadiscourse in academic writing in cross-cultural and cross-linguistic studies, and on the metadiscourse of Korean in academic writing. I conclude this chapter with Hyland's interactional model for academic writing, which is a fundamental framework for analyzing the data in this dissertation study.

2.2 Writing as a Social Activity

The view of academic writing as a social activity has been widely accepted over recent decades, and it lies at the root of the idea of "context of situation" of languages, which was proposed by the anthropologist Malinowski (cited in Halliday, 1978, p. 28). Drawing on sociolinguistics and ethnography, Halliday (1978) introduced a socio-semiotic theory of language, in which language should be interpreted in the context in which it is situated. Since individual linguistic choice is influenced by social and cultural context, "the language we speak or write varies according to the situation" (Halliday, 1978, p. 32).

In his socio-semiotic theory, Halliday sees a discourse as follows:

> Discourse is a multidimensional process and text as its product not only embodies the same kind of polyphonic structuring as is found in grammar, (in the structure of the clause, as message, exchanges and representation), but also since it is functioning at a higher level of the code, as the realization of semiotic orders 'above' language, may contain in itself all the inconsistencies, contradictions and conflicts that can exist within and between such high order semiotic systems. (p. 96)

He views language as a social phenomenon, which not only holds the information of language (e.g., grammatical structure and meaning), but also encodes the social meaning of language in that language is shaped and constructed by social and cultural contexts. The lexico-grammatical choice is motivated and selected related to the social and cultural context in which the lexico-grammatical items are realized. Therefore, the sociocultural context should be taken into account in discourse analysis.

Halliday's functional approach to language within contexts has a recognition of the importance of register and genre variations. The three components of register – field, tenor and mode – were introduced in Halliday (1985, 1989). Field concerns the 'social action – what is happening,' mode refers to the 'role structure – who is taking part' and tenor indicates the 'symbolic organization – what role language is playing.' A register is shaped by the three elements of context collectively, which are "environmental determinants of text."

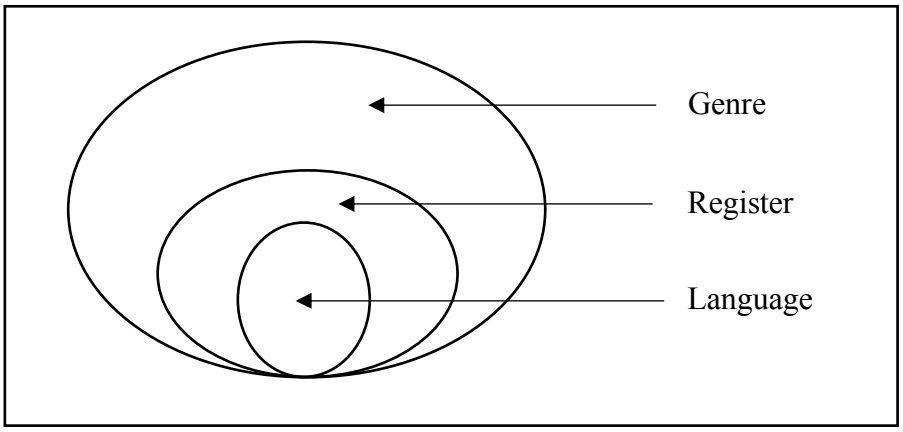

Figure 2.1. Language, register and genre (adapted from Martin, 2001, p. 156)

Adopting Halliday's three elements of register, Martin further developed the concept of register and genre in an effort to put emphasis on the relationship between language and context. By identifying the scopes of context, Martin considered 'genre' as a broader concept of context and differentiated 'register' from genre. In his view, genre is defined as "a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture" (Martin, 2001, p. 155) and "social processes and thus dynamic, realized in different registers" (Martin, 1992, P. 318). In other words, whereas register concerns the context of situation, genre involves the context of culture. In this vein, this dissertation focuses on genre and its role and application in academic writing, especially in published research papers, in that genre plays an important role in interpreting the encoded meaning in social and cultural contexts.

The other theoretical foundation can be found in the dialogic aspects of language use from a Bakhtinian perspective. Bakhtin (1984) argued that "Language lives only in the dialogic interaction of those who make use of it" (p. 183). By differentiating utterances from sentences, Bakhtin stressed the interactional characteristic of utterances in that utterances encode the new meaning embedded in social and cultural contexts. Social situation plays an important role in interpreting the language because "signs emerge, after all, only in the process of interaction between one individual consciousness and another" (Volosinov, 1993, p. 44). The interpretation is achieved through interactions among communication participants and "the exchange of utterances" (Jabri, 2012, pp. 64-65). In other words, a language is contextualized in relation to internal and external environments. This Bakhtinian view of 'otherness' provided valuable insights into sociolinguistics and socio-cultural studies, among others.

As awareness of the encoded meaning of languages embedded in social and cultural contexts has grown, the sociocultural view of writing has been discussed increasingly in

academic circles. Influenced by Halliday's socio-semiotic theory of language, Brandt (1986) examined the relationships among writers, contexts, and text in terms of *context-independence* (italic in original, p. 141), and noted that "a writer's purpose and knowledge of audience and subject matter shape the stylistic and substantive choices the writer makes" (Odell & Goswami, 1984, p. 22; cited in Brandt, 1986, p. 139). Distinguishing the context of the text from that of the writer, she argued that the text could be context-free, but that the writer and even reader cannot. In other words, although there is a difference in degree of context-dependency compared to spoken discourse, context-free writing is an impossibility. In this study, the writer was seen as "not simply a preparer of text but rather, in a very deep sense, a participant in a public event composed of the language of the unfolding text as well as the intersubjective context the writer can assume is being shared with the eventual reader." (Brandt, 1986, p. 152) Focusing on the social nature of writing, Bruffee (1973, 1984) suggested collaborative writing as a learning process providing a particular social context and community. Learning is a social process of sharing "interests, values, language and paradigms of perception and thought" (Bruffee, 1984, p. 12) through interaction among students as peers. The sociocultural aspect of academic writing plays an important role in "intertextuality" (Kristeva, 1980; Bazerman, 1993; Allen, 2000), which involves dialogic relations and interactions among texts. It focuses on how each text positions itself in relation to other surrounding words and "ultimately how you position yourself as a writer to them to make your own statement" (Bazerman, 2004, p. 94).

As an underpinning theory, the sociocultural and dialogic perspectives on writing have influenced the genre approach to academic writing and allowed the abundant development of the crucial grounds for academic writing such as 'discourse community' and 'metadiscourse,' which will be explained in subsequent chapters.

2.3 Academic Discourse Community

The term ‘discourse community’ was coined by Nystrand (1982) and defined as a group of people sharing the same discourse. In the context of the term ‘discourse community’, discourse was seen as “a socially accepted association among ways of using language, of thinking, feeling, believing, valuing, and of acting that can be used to identify oneself as a member of a socially meaningful group of ‘social network,’ or to signal (that one is playing) a socially meaningful ‘role.’” (Gee, 1990, p. 143) In other words, members of a discourse community share not only the same language and structure, but also the same social and cultural norms.

Distinguishing discourse community from speech community (Hymes, 1972) and interpretive community (Fish, 1980), Swales (1987) stressed the socio-rhetorical aspect of a discourse community. Speech community refers to a group of people sharing “knowledge of rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech” (Hymes, 1974, p. 51). Unlike a speech community, whose membership is ‘given’ by birth or adoption, the membership of a discourse community is determined by individual ‘choice and decision.’ According to Fish (1980), an interpretive community consists of a group of individuals sharing a similar perspective and view on reading a text (i.e., “interpretive strategies” or “set of community assumptions”), primarily literary texts. Unlike discourse community members who share a set of public goals and communicate with one another to achieve their goal, there is no active or explicit goal shared by interpretive community members (Borg, 2003, p. 398).

In addition, Swales (1990) provided six characteristics of a discourse community, to help identify one, as follows:

(1) has a broadly agreed set of common public goals.

(2) has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members.

(3) uses its participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback.

(4) utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims.

(5) in addition to owning genres, it has acquired some specific lexis.

(6) has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discoursal expertise (pp. 24-27).

In other words, members of a discourse community communicate and exchange information using participatory mechanisms with knowledge of genre-specific terminology and expertise for pursuing common public goals.

An academic discourse community, which is "a community of readers who write and writers who read" (Brodkey, 1987, p. 3), was referred to as a perfect example of a discourse community that fits all six criteria. The members of an academic discourse community share the conventions of genre and communicate with one another pursuing the same goal. However, Swales' view of a discourse community in relation to the application of the definition of an academic discourse community has been challenged. The boundaries separating each academic discourse into a separate discourse community with its own genre remain fuzzy. Swales' discourse community concerns not only the genre that the members of the community share but also the specific lexis they share. Although the academic discourse community has its own genre ('academic writing'), unique terminology and conventions across disciplines and cultures vary. This is where the adaptation of the application of discourse community is necessary, narrowing it down into sub-genre and sub-discourse communities. Members of an academic discourse

community belong to "discipline-specialized communities" (Al-ali, 1999, p. 32) in which members of a sub-discourse community share their unique lexis and agreement, and intercommunicate one another to achieve the members' shared goal.

Another question raised was whether spoken discourse is involved in the notion of an academic discourse community, because Swales (1990)' approach to discourse community deals with only written communication. Later in 1998, however, using Killingsworth and Gilbertson (1992)'s dichotomy between 'global discourse community' and 'local discourse community,' Swales suggested the concept of 'place discourse communities' in which a spoken discourse as well as a written discourse takes place, distinguished from focus discourse communities (borrowing Porter (1992)'s term), which include only written discourse. Swales (1998) defined a place discourse community as follows:

> A place discourse community (PDC) is a group of people who regularly work together (if not always or all the time in the same place). This group typically has a name. Members of the group (or most of them) have settled (if evolving) sense of their aggregation's roles and purposes, whether these be group decision making, group projects, routine business, or individual enterprises endorsed (tacitly or otherwise) by most of the other members. (p. 204)

Swales pointed out the similarities between his new concept 'place discourse community' and 'community of practice' (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 1992). Eckert and McConnell-Ginet (1992) refer to a community of practice as "an aggregate of people who come together around mutual engagement in some common endeavor" (p. 464). In a community of practice, individual members learn through 'mutual engagement' in a 'joint enterprise.' A community of practice is a collection of individuals developing a "shared repertoire" (Wenger, 1998) of communal resources. Although a community of practice shares similarities with a discourse community and has attracted a lot of attention, especially from members of the

academic community, there is a fundamental difference. Unlike the concept of a discourse community that was rooted in linguistics, the term 'community of practice' came from sociocultural theory. A discourse community concerns 'discourse' more, but 'community' is of great importance in a community of practice. In other words, the focus of a discourse community is on genres and language, whereas a community of practice places emphasis on "ways of doing things, ways of talking, beliefs, values, power relations" (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 1992, p. 464), that is, shared practices. (Johns, 1997, pp. 51-52). Since this dissertation concerns academic discourse as a genre, this study will focus more on discourse community theory. Swales (1990) sees genres as "the properties of discourse communities; that is to say, genres belong to discourse communities, not to individuals, other kinds of grouping or to wider speech communities" (p. 9).

Although Swales' view of a discourse community was criticized for several issues, it has provided valuable insights into studies on written discourse, especially genre analysis in an academic discourse community. The discourse community approach will allow this study not only to reveal the cultural and linguistic features shared by English and Korean linguists within each language community, but also to understand the intercultural differences and disciplinary similarities between the fields of English and Korean linguistics.

2.4 Metadiscourse in Academic Writing

2.4.1 Concept of metadiscourse in academic writing

The concept of metadiscourse has its theoretical underpinnings in the works of Halliday (1973) and Williams (1981), in which a distinction between propositional and non-propositional elements has been made. Pioneering work by Halliday and Hasan (1976) introduced the three-way functional linguistic model of the linguistic system in terms of the relationship between

linguistic forms and their social meanings: the *ideational*, the *interpersonal* and the *textual*. The ideational refers to the "expression of content"—that is, what is being talked about. The interpersonal component concerns the social and expressive functions of language, showing the speaker's perspective, "his attitudes and judgments, his encoding of the role relationships in the situation, and his motive in saying anything at all." The textual component represents the cohesion among clauses or sentences—that is, the inter-sentential linking of propositions within the context of a situation (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, pp. 26-28). The existence of two levels of language has also been pointed out by Williams (1981) in his pedagogical style suggestions: the level of proposition carrying information about the content and the level of metadiscourse directing and guiding the readers to understand the information contained (p. 47).

Influenced by Halliday and William's works, Vande Kopple (1985) defined metadiscourse as "discourse about discourse" (p. 83) and claimed that there are two types of metadiscourse (i.e., interpersonal and textual). A seven-category classification of metadiscourse has been suggested by Vande Kopple (1985): (1) text connectives (e.g., first, however), (2) code glosses (e.g., a definition of a foreign word), (3) illocution markers (e.g., we claim that, for example), (4) validity markers (e.g., perhaps, clearly), (5) narrators (e.g., according to James, the principal reported that), (6) attitude markers (e.g., surprisingly, I find it interesting that) and (7) commentary (most of you will oppose the idea that, you might wish to read the last chapter first) (pp. 83-85).

In line with Vande Kopple (1985), other attempts at a taxonomy of metadiscourse have been made using the propositional and non-propositional distinction. A two-way classification model of metadiscourse was proposed by Crismore et al. (1993) as follows:

I. Textual Metadiscourse (used for logical and ethical appeals)

1. Textual Markers: Logical Connectives, Sequencers, Reminders, Topicalizers
2. Interpretive Markers: Code Glosses, Illocution markers, Announcements

II. Interpersonal Metadiscourse (used for emotional and ethical appeals)

1. Hedges (epistemic certainty markers)
2. Certainty Markers (epistemic emphatics)
3. Attributors
4. Attitude Markers
5. Commentary (Crismore et al., 1993, p. 47)

With a slight modification, Hyland (1998) also suggested a textual-interpersonal distinction model of metadiscourse: (1) Textual metadiscourse (e.g., Logical connectives, Frame markers, Endophoric markers, Evidential, Code glosses), (2) Interpersonal metadiscourse (e.g., Hedges, Emphatics, Attitude markers, Relational markers, Person markers).

By admitting that the metadiscourse was incorrectly characterized as "discourse about discourse," as quoted in previous works (Hyland 1998; 2000), however, Hyland and Tse (2004) disaffirmed the propositional and non-propositional distinction and argued that it had fulfilled its function as a starting point for metadiscourse theory in academic writing. They claimed that textual elements (e.g., conjunctions, modal adjuncts) could hardly be separated from ideational or interpersonal resources because they function as cohesive devices helping readers to better understand propositional and interpersonal meanings, and that all metadiscourse devices are interpersonal, allowing us to understand the way that "academic writers engage their readers; shaping their propositions to create convincing, coherent text by making language choices in social contexts peopled by readers, prior experiences, and other texts" (p. 167). Drawing on two-dimensional –interactive and interactional– distinction, Hyland and Tse (2004) proposed a

modified model of academic metadiscourse, as seen in Table 2.1, defining metadiscourse as "aspects of the text which explicitly refer to the ornanisation of the discourse or the writer's stance towards its content or the reader" (Hyland, 2004, p. 59). The two terms were adopted from Thompson (2001): *interactive* concerns discourse organization, information management and establishment of "the writer's preferred interpretations," and *interactional* refers to involvement of "readers in the argument by alerting them to the author's perspective towards both propositional information and readers themselves" (p. 168). These interactional features of the metadiscourse model became the foundation for Hyland's interactional model in academic writing (2005b). Of these two categories of metadiscourse, this study focuses on the interactional aspect of metadiscourse, which concerns the interaction between writers and readers, and the details will be explained in the following Section 2.4.5.

Table 2.1. A metadiscourse model in academic writing

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive resources	Help to guide reader through the text	
Transitions	express semantic relation between main clauses	in addition/but/thus/and
Frame markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages	finally/to conclude/my purpose here is to
Endophoric markers	refer to information in other parts of the text	noted above/see Fig/in section 2
Evidentials	refer to source of information from other texts	according to X/(Y, 1990)/Z states
Code glosses	help readers grasp functions of ideational material	namely/e.g., such as/in other words
Interactional resources	Involve the reader in the argument	
Hedges	withhold writer's full commitment to proposition	might/perhaps/possible/about
Boosters	emphasize force or writer's certainty in proposition	in fact/definitely/it is clear that
Attitude markers	express writer's attitude to proposition	unfortunately/I agree/surprisingly
Engagement markers	explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader	consider/note that/you can see that
Self-mentions	explicit reference to author(s)	I/we/my/our

(Adapted from Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 169)

2.4.2 Concept of Stance in academic writing

Stance is "one of the most important things we do with words" (Du Bois, 2007, p.139). That is because "whenever speakers (or writers) say anything, they encode their point of view toward it" (Stubbs, 1986, p. 1). Stance has traditionally been studied with respect to the concept of subjectivity, which is defined as the "agent's (the speaker's or writer's, the utterer's) expression of himself or herself in the act of utterance"—that is, a "self-expression" (Lyons, 1994, p. 13). Under the notion of subjectivity, such terms as *voice* (Bowden, 1995; Hirvela & Belcher, 2001), *evaluation* (Hunston & Thompson, 2000), *appraisal* (Martin, 2000; Martin & White, 2005), *attitude* (Halliday, 2004), *metadiscourse* (Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland 2005a;

Hyland & Tse, 2004) and *stance* (Biber et al. 1999; Biber 2006; Hyland, 2005b) have been developed and examined mainly in corpus linguistics and discourse functional linguistics. Some of the terms have been studied and developed into an analytic framework, particularly in studies of authorial stance in written discourse.

Hunston & Thompson (2000) provided the definition of evaluation as follows:

> the broad cover term for the expression of the speaker or writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about. That attitude may relate to certainty or obligation or desirability or any of a number of other sets of values. (p. 5)

There are three main functions of evaluation identified, which are non-exclusive and compatible:

> (1) to express the speaker's or writer's opinion, and in doing so to reflect the value system of that person and their community
>
> (2) to construct and maintain relations between the speaker or writer and hearer or reader
>
> (3) to organize the discourse (Hunston & Thompson, 2000, p.6)

The functions of evaluation include not only the speaker or writer's "self-expression," but also the demonstration of values toward 'entities and propositions.' Evaluation also concerns the relationship between the speaker and hearer, or the speaker and reader.

Hunston & Thompson (2000) also suggested four parameters of evaluation for the analysis of authorial stance in a text: Good–Bad, Certainty, Expectedness, Importance. The first dimension of evaluation is being good or bad, which reflects the value system of the speaker or writer and their community. The degree of certainty plays an important role, especially in the genre of academic writing in which people construct knowledge claims based on evidence. Evaluations of being good-bad and certainty are involved in being 'real-world-oriented,' whereas Expectedness and the importance parameters of evaluation seem to be 'text-oriented.' Evaluation of expectedness relates to obviousness, i.e., how obvious the information or discourse itself is.

The importance parameter assesses how significant or relevant information and discourse are, and it occupies a central function in organizing the text (p. 22-26).

Within Systemic Functional Linguistics, Appraisal theory (Martin & White (2005)) was developed, which is an analytical framework in terms of interpersonal meanings of language. Martin and White (2005) proposed the three dimensions of interactions: Attitude, Engagement, and Graduation, as summarized in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Appraisal theory

Domain of appraisal	Category	Value	Illustrative realization
Attitude	Affect Judgement Appreciation	Feelings and emotional reactions Of ethics, behavior, capacity Of things, phenomena, reactions	*happy, sad* *wrong, brave* *beautiful, authentic*
Engagement	Monogloss Heterogloss	Single-voiced Contractive	*categorical assertion* *show, certainly* *claim, nearly, possibly*
Graduation	Force Focus	Raise Lower Sharpen Soften	*totally extinct* *slightly worried* *a true champion* *kind of blue*

(adapted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 38)

Attitude is the realm of subjective assessment that includes speakers' or writers' feelings, such as emotions, judgement and evaluation. Engagement, on the other hand, is the realm of the interpersonal aspects of language resources. It is the source of attitude displaying the relationship between the writer and text, and the speaker and utterance. Graduation concerns the degree of attitude, and it adjusts the strength of feelings concerned with force and focus (p. 35-37)

The intersubjective dimension as well as the subjective dimension of discourse plays an important role in both the evaluation theory and appraisal framework. The notion of intersubjectivity was first identified by Benveniste (1971) as being aware that "every utterance

assumes a speaker and a hearer, and in the speaker, the intention of influencing the other in some way" (p. 209). According to Traugott (2003), who further developed Benveniste's idea of intersubjectivity, intersubjectivity is defined as follows:

> intersubjectivity is the explicit expression of the speaker's attention to the 'self' of the addressee in both an epistemic sense (paying attention to their presumed attitudes to the content of what is said), and in a more social sense (paying attention to their "face" or "image needs" associated with social stance and identity), whether or not there is mutual understanding (p. 128).

This means intersubjectivity involves not only "information-sharing" but also "emotion-sharing" (Maynard, 1993, p. 4).

Unlike the evaluation theory and appraisal framework in which intersubjective meaning of language plays an important role, there is no interactional aspect encoded in the concept of stance suggested by Biber et al. (1999) and Biber (2006). Biber et al. (1999) defined stance as "personal feelings, attitudes, value judgement, or assessments" (p. 966). As Ochs and Schieffelin (1989) pointed out that emotions such as "attitudes, moods, feelings, and dispositions" can affect the entire linguistic system (e.g., pronouns, tense/aspect, casemarking, phonology, lexicon, word order, etc.) (p.7-14), their concept of stance relies heavily on epistemic and affective dimensions of stance as follows:

> Linguistic structures that index epistemic and affective stances are the basic linguistic resources for constructing/realizing social acts and social identities. Epistemic and affective stance has, then, an especially privileged role in the constitution of social life. This role may account in part for why stance is elaborately encoded in the grammars of many languages. (Ochs, 1996, p. 420)

According to Biber et al. (1999; 2006), there are three types of stance: (1) epistemic stance including certainty (e.g. certainly, in fact) and the degree of probability (e.g. perhaps, probably), (2) attitudinal stance expressing an evaluation or assessment of expectations (e.g., amazingly or

importantly) and (3) style stance commenting on the attitude or the perspective (e.g., frankly, generally).

In line with Biber, Hyland (2005b) views stance as "an attitudinal dimension" including "the ways writers present themselves" and conveying the writers' "judgements, opinions, and commitments" (p. 176). Differentiating the intersubjective aspect of discourse from its subjective feature, Hyland (2005b) called the interactional features of discourse 'engagement.' In addition to the interactional aspect of stance in academic writing, the ways in which the writer explicitly engages with the readers by recognizing the presence of the "reader-in-the-text" (Thompson & Thetela, 1995) have also been considered a crucial aspect of academic writing, in which intersubjectivity plays an important role. The details and classification of the framework for stance in academic writing adopted from Hyland's (2005b) framework will be discussed in section 2.4.5.

2.4.3 Cross-cultural and cross-linguistic studies of metadiscourse in academic writing

As the idea that academic writing is a socially-situated activity has been discussed, there has been a growing interest in the cross-cultural and cross-linguistic differences between academic writing in different cultures and languages. The concept of Contrastive Rhetoric was proposed by Kaplan in his seminal work in 1966, which is closely related to the Whorf-Sapir hypothesis. Contrastive Rhetoric is defined as "an area of research in second language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second language writers and, by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them" (Connor, 1996, p. 5). Based on analysis of over 600 ESL student essays, Kaplan (1966) suggested the distinctive rhetorical styles of different cultures. Unlike English written discourse, whose rhetorical pattern is a linear style, for example, paragraphs of Korean written discourse develop

in circles, turning around the subject and avoiding directness (Kaplan, 1972, p. 46). Following the theory of Contrastive Rhetoric, Eggington (1987) demonstrated how the Korean cultural preference for indirectness is reflected in the rhetorical pattern of written discourse in Korean of avoiding assertiveness and seeming condescending.

Cross-cultural and cross-linguistic studies on metadiscoursal resources employed in academic writing concern how written discourse is culturally shaped and socially constructed within a discourse community. There has been a considerable amount of cross-cultural and cross-linguistic research on the metadiscourse device of written discourse, but a majority of the research to date has been carried out in European languages and English: Spanish (Pérez-Llantada, 2010; Mur-Dueñas, 2011), Italian (Bondi, 2007; Molino, 2010), German (Vassileva, 1998; Sanderson, 2008) and French (Vassileva, 1998). Comparative studies between English and Middle Asian languages are also prolific: Persian (Abdi, 2009; Zarei & Mansoori, 2011; Taki & Jafarpour, 2012). However, few cross-cultural and cross-linguistic studies on metadiscourse devices have been conducted in East Asian languages: Chinese (Hu & Cao, 2011), Japanese (N. I. Lee, 2011; Itakura, 2013). The details will be discussed in this dissertation.

A considerable amount of cross-cultural and cross-linguistic research on metadiscourse devices of written discourse in English and European languages. Drawing on the Spanish-English Research Article Corpus (SERAC), Mur-Dueñas (2011) demonstrated significant differences in the use of metadiscursive resources in English research article published in international journals (n=12) and Spanish research articles published in Spanish national journals (n=12). The comparative analysis revealed that more hedge devices were found in research article abstracts published in English-medium journals than in those published in Spanish-medium journals. Another notable difference between interactional metadiscourse items in

English and Spanish was found in the use of self-mention in that the numbers of first-person pronouns of English, especially the plural pronoun *we*, outweighed the numbers of Spanish first-person pronouns. English writers' preference for hedging devices was supported by Martín-Martín (2008), analyzing 40 research articles written in English and Spanish in the field of Clinical and Health Psychology. According to Martín-Martín (2008), 'indetermination' (i.e., epistemic modality, approximators) was preferred most among English writers, but there is no significant difference found in the use of other metadiscourse devices in English and Spanish research articles. In terms of the use of personal references, some research (Mur-Dueñas, 2007; Sheldon, 2009) has provided empirical evidence of a difference between English and Spanish research articles. However, other research (I. Williams, 2010) has suggested no significant difference in the frequency of personal pronouns in research articles written English and Spanish.

Pérez-Llantada (2010) also showed mixed results on the use of epistemic verbs in research articles written in English and Spanish. The research investigated three groups of corpora, consisting of English research articles written by Anglophone writers, those written by Spanish writers, and Spanish research articles written by native Spanish writers in the field of biomedical research. The quantitative analysis revealed that the epistemic expressions of the three groups of writers varied across the sections. The frequency of judgment verbs was highest in English research articles written by English native writers in the results and discussion sections, whereas English research articles written by Spanish native writers contained the highest number of evidential verbs across all four sections. In her intercultural research on first-person plural pronouns in 2009, Carciu attributed these mixed and inconclusive results to the trend of 'internationalization' and 'progressive standardization' in academic discourse. The 'standardization' and 'homogeneity' in academic writing is related to the status of English as a

lingua franca and as a "shared medium for scientific communication" in the academic community (Mauranen, Pérez-Llantada & Swale, 2010).

Additional research on Indo-European language was conducted by Vassileva (2001). Exploring hedging and boosting devices in three sets of research articles—written in English by native English writers, written in English by native Bulgarian writers, and written in Bulgarian by native Bulgarian writers—Vassileva (2001) examined the degree of commitment toward a proposition and detachment from a proposition. Whereas more hedges were found in English research articles published in international journals, research articles written in English by native Bulgarian writers favored hedging devices the least. The findings on boosting devices appear to mirror the results of hedging devices, in that English research articles written by Bulgarian native writers contained the highest numbers of boosters, and boosting devices were used least frequently in English research articles published in international journals. In sum, the degree of detachment is highest in English and the degree of commitment is highest in English used by Bulgarians.

English writers' preference for hedges was revealed in cross-cultural and cross-linguistic studies by Zarei and Mansoori. In their comparative research in 2007 and 2011, Zarei and Mansoori compared metadiscoursal elements of research articles written in English and Persian. The corpus of the former study consists of research articles from applied linguistics and computer engineering, and the latter study dealt with research articles in the field of computer engineering. Both studies demonstrated that, overall, Persian native writers tend to employ not only more interactive resources (e.g., Transitions, Code glosses) but also interactional devices (e.g., boosters, attitude markers), except for hedges and engage markers. English research articles used hedging devices most frequently and engagement markers to engage with their readers,

whereas Persian research articles contained more boosters and attitude markers than English ones. They claimed that metadiscourse resources are not just technical strategies of language but indispensable devices "determined by cultural norms of a given language" and connected with the "expectations of a particular professional community" (p. 1041).

Similar results related to interactional devices were reached by Abdi (2009) in his intercultural study of metadiscourse markers in 36 English and 36 Persian research articles from six disciplines (sociology, education, psychology, physics, chemistry, and medicine). Abdi (2009) found a high frequency of hedges and engagement markers as well as high numbers of attitude markers in English research articles. Unlike Zarei and Mansoori (2011), in which self-mention occurred equally in both English and Persian research articles, there was a striking difference in the use of self-mention (95% in English, compared with 5% in Persian). Abdi claimed that the grounds for Persian writers' low use of personal references lie in prevailing ideas about the dry and impersonal features of academic prose (cf. Hyland, 2002) (p. 10).

Another cross-linguistic and cross-disciplinary study between English and Persian languages was carried out by Taki and Jafarpour (2012). Investigating 120 English and Persian research articles from the fields of Chemistry and Sociology, they analyzed the use of metadiscoursal resources, including engagement markers (e.g., Reader pronouns, Personal Asides, Appeals to shared knowledge, Directives and Questions) as well as stance markers. The quantitative results demonstrated a significant cross-disciplinary difference rather than a cross-language difference. On one hand, the frequency of stance markers in Persian (24.7 per 1,000 words) was 32.39% higher than that in English (32.7 per 1,000 words). On the other hand, the frequency of stance markers in Sociology (42.3 per 1,000 words) was almost three times that in Chemistry (15.1 per 1,000 words). It is not surprising that hedges are the most frequently used

stance markers in English research articles, supporting previous studies (Vassileva, 2001; Zarei & Mansoori, 2007, 2011; Hu & Cao, 2011; Sanjaya, 2013), and self-mention is hardly employed by Persian authors, but it is interesting that attitude markers found in Persian research articles outnumber other stance markers, even hedges.

Cross-cultural and cross-linguistic studies on metadiscourse resources in East Asian languages are limited. Taking a three-way comparative approach, Hu and Cao (2011) examined metadiscursive resources among research article abstracts in English from international journals (n=195), Chinese research articles published in mainland China (n=227), and their counterpart abstracts written in English (n=227). On one hand, more hedge devices were found in research article abstracts published in English-medium journals than in those published in Chinese-medium journals and in English abstracts written by Chinese native writers. On the other hand, research articles written in Chinese employed more boosters than did English abstracts published in both international journals and Chinese-medium journals. Hu and Cao claimed that different epistemological beliefs about science exist between Anglo-American and Chinese academic cultures. A shifting trend from positivism to constructivism in the field of Applied linguistics in the West led English linguistics to "increasingly perceive the need to qualify knowledge claims, withhold full commitment to assertions, and assume a tone of circumspection or tentativeness through the use of metadiscourse strategies such as hedges." (p. 2805) By contrast, Chinese researchers' enthusiasm for scientism and an academic trend toward positivism allows Chinese writers to hide their authorial identities behind 'linguistic objectivity' (Hyland, 2005a) by withholding the use of hedges and employing boosters.

Drawing on Hyland's (2005b) taxonomy of stance and engagement markers, N. I. Lee (2011) investigated rhetorical differences between academic and journalistic writing in English

and Japanese. In terms of overall frequency, English writers employed a higher number of stance markers, including hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention, than Japanese writers did in both published research articles and journal editorials, but hedges were used slightly more in Japanese editorials than in English newspapers. A higher number of most engagement markers, such as reader pronouns, directives, shared knowledge, and personal asides, were used by native English writers, except for questions, in both research articles and journal editorials. It is not surprising that native Japanese writers incorporate a higher number of questions than native English writers do, because question has been known to be a discourse strategy for mitigating face-threatening acts in Japanese discourse.

Contrary to most results in previous studies, cross-cultural and cross-linguistic studies of English and Japanese (N. I. Lee, 2011; Itakura, 2013) demonstrated that more hedges were found in the academic written discourse of Japanese than in that of English. Itakura (2013) looked at hedging praise in book reviews in English and Japanese. Japanese book reviews use three times more hedged-praise than English reviewers do. Book reviews written in English employ epistemic verbs in the active voice, whereas Japanese book reviewers tend to incorporate epistemic verbs in the passive structure. Itakura claimed impersonal hedging structures (e.g., passive voice, agentless structure) may be related to a Japanese culture of politeness and to native Japanese writers' preference for avoiding explicit certainty as an evaluator (pp. 144-145).

A comparative approach to interpersonal linguistic devices is also rare among Southeast Asian languages. Sanjaya (2013) investigated the differences and similarities in the uses of hedges and boosters between the English and Indonesian languages. Taking a cross-disciplinary as well as cross-cultural and cross-linguistic approach, the study examined 104 research articles from the two languages (i.e., English and Indonesian) and two disciplines (i.e., applied

linguistics and chemistry). The quantitative results of the data revealed that English research articles were more cautious than Indonesian articles, with more frequent use of hedges and a higher frequency of boosters, indicating that Indonesian scholars are more confident in their research papers. The non-uniformity of the frequency distribution of the hedges and boosters among researchers within the same sociocultural communities, however, indicated that sociocultural context was not the sole factor in determining stance markers. In addition to social factors such as size of readership, degree of homogeneity of readership and cultural characteristics, intrapersonal factors (e. g., cultural models (Gee, 2012), identity construction and situated meanings) were also suggested as other factors that influence the use of stance markers.

This section reviewed cross-cultural and cross-linguistic studies of metadiscourse devices between English and other languages: European languages (Spanish, Italian, German and French), a Middle Asian language (Persian), East Asian languages (Chinese and Japanese) and a Southeast Asian language (Indonesian). Although one might find the findings inconsistent in the details, previous research revealed significant differences and a tendency for languages to be different from each other in the use of metadiscoursal resources in research articles. Despite the criticisms raised (e.g., overgeneralization), cross-cultural and cross-linguistic study not only offers valuable insights into the field of foreign/second language teaching and learning, but also contributes to building knowledge of each sub-community discourse.

2.4.4 Studies on metadiscourse of Korean in academic writing

The genre of academic writing in Korean has attracted a great deal of research attention; however, not many studies have been carried out on rhetorical devices for authorial stance-taking and a writer's interaction with readers through texts. Only a few studies have investigated the interpersonal metadiscourse device in academic writing within an academic discourse

community. They mostly focus on hedges only (Sin, 2006; Y. Shin, 2011; J. Lee, 2012), and none of them examined comprehensively the interpersonal aspect of metadiscourse devices from quantitative analytical methods using a corpus approach.

The foundational work on examining rhetorical items in Korean was the work of Shim (2005), which examined the use of hedge expressions in English academic writing. Drawing on 20 published research articles in the field of applied linguistics, this study compared hedging expressions in the introduction sections of English journal articles by Korean and English writers. To better understand L1 Korean writers, she also investigated the use of hedging in the introduction sections of journal articles (n=10) written in Korean. The findings from this study suggested that native Korean writers tend to be direct and assertive in their academic writing, in both Korean and English. According to Shim, the L1 writers of Korean preferred using a non-hedged statement with the verb ending *–issta* 'be' to a hedged statement in journal articles, in order to avoid seeming uncertain or doubtful. An indirect quotation marker *-ko hata* (*-lako handa* in original) 'be said that' used in a passive structure is commonly found. Shim claimed that avoiding a direct presentation of writers' opinions not only protects their own positions with anonymous references (Eggington, 1987, p. 154), but also makes their claims more objective, as in Example 2.1.

Example 2.1: *-ko hata* 'be said that'

(1) 공손성 원리가 이들 협력원리 위반 사항들을 구제하여, 보완해주는 역할을 해준다**고 한다**.
*kongsonseng wenlika itul hyeplyekwenli wipan sahangtulul kwuceyhaye, powanhaycwunun yekhalul haycwunta**ko hanta***.
'**It is said that** the principle of politeness serves to remedy and overcome violations of these cooperation principles.'

(Shim, 2005, p. 207)

Among the few studies on metadiscourse devices in Korean academic writing, Sin (2006) examined introduction sections of published journal articles (n=52) in *The Education of Korean Language* in the field of Korean linguistics and Korean language education. Sin (2006) categorized the functions of hedged items identified in journal articles as illustrated in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3. Functions of hedged expressions

Functions of Hedges	Examples
Possibility and Speculation	*swu* 'possibility,' *keyss* 'would,' *amato* 'maybe,' *tushata* 'mean'
Prevention of Generalization	*cwunguy hana* 'one of,' *han* 'one (kind),' *ilconguy* 'kind of'
Revealability and Concealment	*yenkwuca* 'researcher,' *swu issta*/*epsta* vs. *pota* 'it is possible/impossible,' *-ko allyecye issta* 'known as'
Limitation	*keuy* 'almost,' *cwulo* 'mostly,' *khukey* 'large,' *pikyocek* 'relative,' *khun* 'big,' *kiphiisskey* 'in-depth,' *taso* 'somewhat'
Entirety and Implication	Negations (e.g. *an*, *eps-*, *mos*)
Reduction in Performance	*konlanhata* 'difficult,' *mwulika issta* 'tough, reasonable,' *philyohata* 'necessary,' *wulyeka issta* 'concern, worry'

The definition of hedge used by Sin has a broad scope, including metadiscourse devices that make things not only 'fuzzier' (e.g., possibility, speculation, limitation, etc.) but also 'less fuzzy' (e.g., revealability), which are considered boosters in the present study. It seems that the aspect of a writer's attitude and evaluation toward what is being said is also realized in the category of Reduction in Performance (e.g., *konlanhata* 'difficult', *mwulika issta* 'unresonable, impossible'). Although it failed to provide a list of metadiscourse items, that study was the first attempt to classify hedging expressions used in published journals of the Korean academic community and contained an extensive range of stance markers, including boosters and attitude markers, based on corpus-based analysis.

Taking a comparative approach, Y. Shin (2011) examined hedge expressions in the introductions of master's theses written in Korean by L1 Korean and L1 Chinese writers. The

research compared 50 introduction sections of master's theses in Korean by native Korean writers with introductions from 50 master's theses written by non-native Korean writers with L1 Chinese background. Overall, L1 Korean writers used Korean hedging devices more frequently and diversely, with 1621 occurrences, than L1 Chinese writers, with 1380 occurrences. According to Y. Shin (2011), although the difference between two groups is not big, the overall result supports previous comparative studies comparing English academic writing written by English L1 writers and English L2 writers, in that L1 writers tend to use hedges more frequently than do L2 writers (Shim, 2005).[1] Korean L2 writers with an L1 Chinese background tend to be more assertive in stating objective facts or directly quoting previous studies than Korean L1 writers.

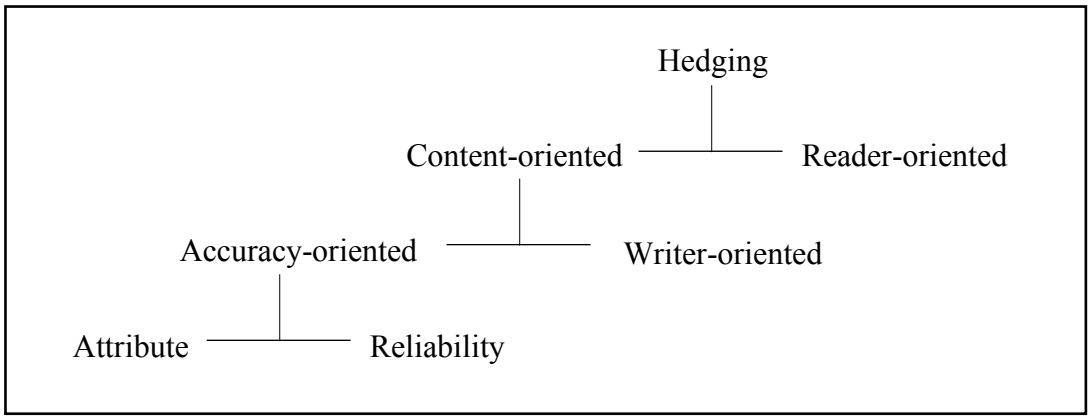

Figure 2.2. A model of scientific hedging (Adapted from Hyland, 1998, p. 156)

[1] Considering small difference in frequencies, it should be pointed out that since the study did not provide the corpus size or a normalized statistical analysis which compares texts from different lengths, there is a possibility that results could be different in the normalized frequency distribution.

Table 2.4. Korean hedging expressions

Category		Examples	
Content-oriented Hedges	Accuracy-oriented	Quotation Evidentiality	*-ko*+ conveyance verbs: *malhata* 'tell,' *cwucanghata* 'argue' *-ko*+ cognition verbs: *sayngkakhata* 'think,' *haysekhata* 'analyze'
	Writer-oriented	Judgment Objectification	-(*u*)*n/nun phyenita* 'tend,' -(*u*)*n/nun/l kes kathta*, 'seems like' -(*u*)*n/nunkapota*, -(*u*)*l kesita* 'would,' -(*u*)*l swu issta* 'possible, might' -(*u*)*lo pota/poita* 'see as' *-keyss-* 'would,' *kanunghata* 'possible,' *kaceng*/*chwuchuk*/*chwucenghata*, 'possible/assume/estimate,' *uyuyka issta*, 'it is meaningful,' *philyosengi issta* 'it is necessary,' *ponko* 'this article,' *pon yenkwu*, 'this research,' *yenkwuca* 'researcher,' *wuli* 'we'
Additional Hedges		Ambiguity Indefiniteness Uncertainty	*keuy* 'almost,' *taso* 'somewhat,' *pikyocek*, 'relatively,' *enu* 'any' *enu* 'any,' *etten* 'some' *ama*(*to*) 'maybe,' *eccemyen* 'maybe'

(Adapted from Y. Shin, 2011, p. 69)

Adopting Hyland (1998)'s framework of hedging in scientific writing illustrated in Figure 2.2, Y. Shin (2011) offered the function-based classification of hedging employed in Korean published journal articles summarized in Table 2.4. Based on comparative results of frequency found in the research, Y. Shin divided hedging devices into two groups: Content-oriented Hedges and Additional Hedges. Content-oriented Hedges are classified into Accuracy-oriented (i.e., Quotation and Evidentiality) and Writers-oriented (i.e., Judgment and Objectification) Hedges. It is interesting that none of the L1 Korean researchers employed a hedge expressing uncertainty, and only one occurrence of it was found in the L2 corpus. This might be because the linguistic identification of this study was based on the previous study (Sin,

2006), Hyland's classification of hedging (Figure 2.2), and two Korean grammar textbooks[2], instead of taking a corpus-driven approach, as pointed out in the previous study (J. Lee, 2012, p. 277). Note that academic writing is a social action reflecting social and cultural norms, values and belief shared by academic community members, and 'genre' should be considered in the process of identifying linguistic items. In addition, her study was not only a scientific approach applying Hyland's framework of hedging expressions, but also empirical research incorporating a comparative perspective.

Unlike previous studies, whose research scope covered only the introduction sections of published journal articles, J. Lee (2012) examined hedging devices in Korean in the entire contents of journal articles (n=9), including discussions, methods and conclusions, as well as introductions. Previous research on hedging devices in Korean focused only on the introduction section, claiming that, among all sections, the introduction of journal articles provides the environment in which hedging expressions occur most frequently. However, Lee claimed that the scope of research remains limited in that hedging expressions in research articles occur in discussions and conclusions as well as in introductions. (J. Lee, 2012, p. 276). Based on the complete text of 9 research articles, J. Lee (2012) offered the classification of hedging expressions in Korean as summarized in Table 2.5.

[2] 1) The National Institute of The Korean Language. (2005). *Korean Grammar for Foreigners 2*. Seoul: Communication Books. 2) Baek, B. (2006). *Korean Grammar as a Foreign Language*. Seoul: Hawoo.

Table 2.5. Classification of Korean hedging expressions

	Classification	Examples
Word & Grammatical Expressions	Verbs: Judgment	*pota* 'see,' *poita* '*be seen*,' *nathanata* 'appear'
	Adjectives: Positive/Negative	*kanunghata* 'possible,' *palamcikhata* 'desirable,' *elyepta* 'difficult'
	Modal Adverbs/Adverbial phrases	*amato* 'maybe,' *taycheylo* 'usually,' *pikyocek* 'relatively'
	Modal nouns	*kanungseng* 'possibility,' *philyoseng*, 'necessity,' *chwuchuk* 'assumption'
	Modal prefinal ending/ connective ending/final ending	-*keyss*- 'would,' -(*u*)*l swu issta*, 'possible, might,' -(*u*)*l kesita* 'would, possible'
Strategic Expressions	Comment on limit condition	*tanenhakinun iluna* 'it is too early to affirm that,' *hankyeyka issciman* 'although there is a limit'
	Comment on model, theory, method	*i silhemuy kyelkwaka mactamyen* 'if the result of this experiment was right,' *i kaseley kunkehantamyen* 'based on this theory'
	Comment on lack of knowledge	*hankyeyka concayhanta* 'there is a limit,' *te kiphun nonuyka philyohata* 'a further discussion is needed'

His data revealed that adverbs (8.48%) were not used as frequently as had been claimed in previous studies. Although verbs and sentence enders account for 65.12 % (i.e., 33.83%, 31.29%, respectively) of hedge expressions, strategically formulaic expressions (e.g., -*lanun cemul kolyehantamyen* 'if considering that') are not preferred among Korean researchers. Members of the Korean Applied linguistic community seem to rely on certain sentence enders such as -*(u)l swu issta* 'possible, might,' -*ta/lako hal swu issta* 'possible to be said that,' -*(u)n/nun/(u)l kesita* 'would, possible,' and -*nun kesita* 'it is that,' to express "their attitude of

tentativeness and possibility towards to the statements they make" (J. Lee, 2012, p. 269). His study provided in-depth analysis of Korean hedges in terms of L1 Korean, and L2 Korean writers would also benefit from a detailed and extensive list of hedging expressions based on a qualitative analysis of the data.

Previous studies of hedging expressions provided not only valuable grounds for the development and further discussion of metadiscourse in Korean, but also pedagogical implications for Korean foreign/second language teachers and learners. However, our understanding of metadiscursive resources is still limited due to the limited corpus size and the limited scope of the research. Considering that discourse is culturally shaped and socially constructed according to shared conventions and rituals within a discourse community, this lack of research has resulted in a gap in knowledge for incipient members entering the Korean-language academic discourse community. I hope that the quantitative and qualitative results of this study will help those who wish to become a member of the Korean academic discourse community, especially in Korean applied linguistics, in understanding conventions and practices shared by members of the Korean applied linguistics community.

2.4.5 Framework: Interactional model for academic writing

As academic writing has attracted increasing attention and interest from researchers and educators, the writer's identity and interaction with readers within the text have arisen as important aspects to consider. The concept of *stance* is defined as a speaker/writer's self-positioning toward what is being talked about or being realized, whereas *engagement* describes the way a speaker/writer aligns and connects with a listener/reader (Hyland, 2005b). Figure 2.3

illustrates the interactional model in academic discourse proposed by Hyland (2005b) and introduces four stance markers: Hedges, Boosters, Attitude markers, and Self-mentions.

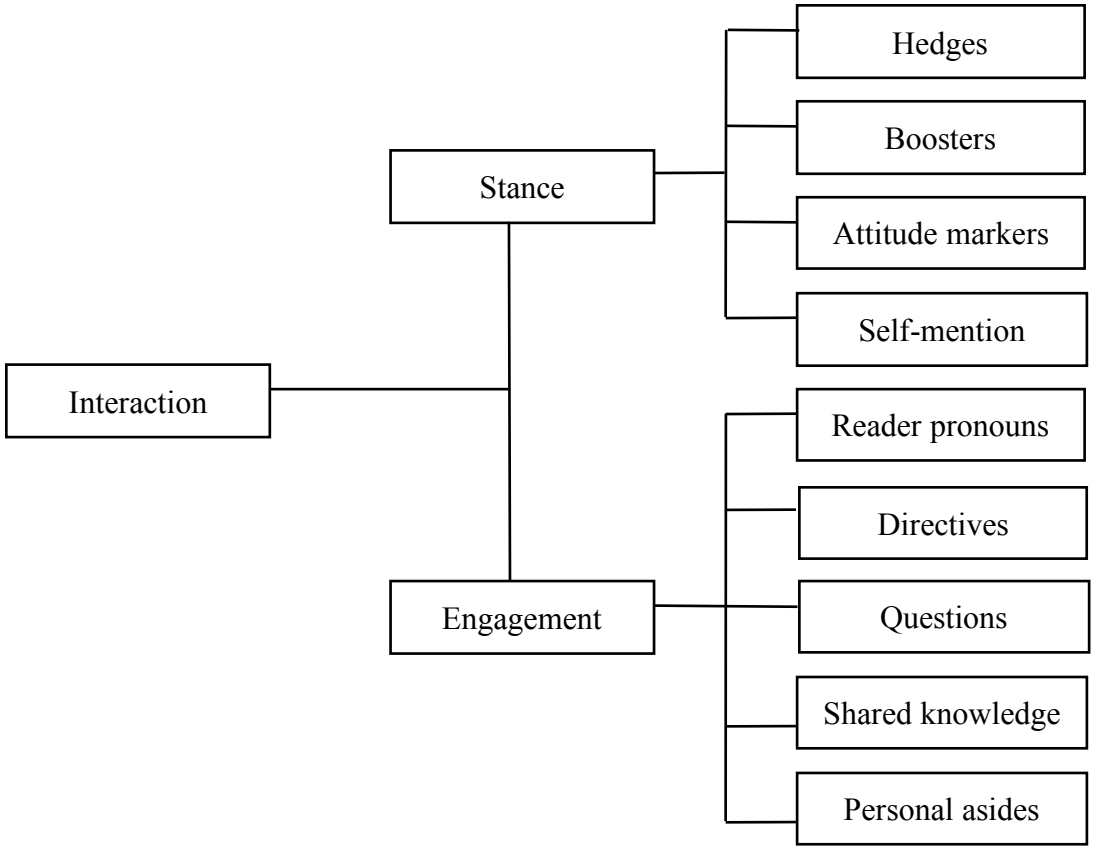

Figure 2.3. An interactional model for academic writing (adapted from Hyland, 2005b, p. 177)

Hedges are linguistic devices, such as *might*, *possible* and *almost*, that allow writers to mitigate the degree of commitment and certainty toward the proposition and to anticipate possible negative responses from readers. The sentences in Example 2.2 illustrate the use of hedges *would* and *(u)l kes* 'would, possible' in English and Korean research article corpora, respectively.

Example 2.2: would & *(u)l kes* 'would, possible'

(1) There is no lack of materials available on the Internet today, and it **would** be impossible to categorize or sample all of them. (EL: 14)

(2) 그러나 다른 한편으로는 우리의 교육 현실에서 세계영어를 교육하기가 쉽지 않**을 것**이라는 지적도 많았다.
*kulena talun hanphyenulonun wuliuy kyoyuk hyensileyse seykyeyyengelul kyoyukhakika swipci anh**ul kes**ilanun cicekto manhassta*.
'But, on the other hand, many pointed out that it **would** be difficult to teach the world English in our educational reality.' (KL: 27)

Boosters, on the other hand, are expressions such as *must*, *prove* and *clearly*, which strengthen the writer's argument by emphasizing authorial certainty and the assertiveness of the claims.

Example 2.3 demonstrates how the English adverb *clearly* and the Korean adverb *pwunmyenghi* 'clearly, obviously' express the writers' certainty in research articles.

Example 2.3: clearly & *pwunmyenghi* 'clearly, obviously'

(1) The provided exposure was **clearly** insufficient for the participants to learn the system, regardless of whether this learning occurred explicitly or implicitly. (EL: 02)

(2) 우선 학술논문 장르에서 자주 사용되는 몇 가지 표현들을 보면 이러한 사실을 **분명히** 알 수 있다.
*wusen hakswulnonmwun canglueyse cacwu sayongtoynun myech kaci phyohyentulul pomyen ilehan sasilul **pwunmyenghi** al swu issta.*.
'By looking at some expressions often used in academic paper genres, this fact can be seen **clearly**.' (KL: 01)

Attitude markers carry the writer's affective position rather than certainty, expressing the writer's surprise, agreement or value (important or insignificant) toward the proposition.

According to Hyland (2005b), there are three types of attitude markers: attitude verbs (*agree*, *prefer*), sentence adverbs (*surprisingly*, *appropriately*) and adjectives (*important*, *amazing*).

Example 2.4 shows how adjectives *important* and *cwungyohata* 'important' are used to express writers' attitude toward the topic in research articles in English and Korean data, respectively.

Example 2.4: important & *cwungyohata* 'important'

(1) therefore, it is **important** to report and interpret reliability coefficients for each administration of a given instrument. (EL: 43)

(2) 외국어의 학습은 모국어의 습득과는 다르므로 교재에 비표준어의 도입은 **중요하다**.
oykwukeuy haksupun mokwukeuy suptukkwanun talumulo kyocayey piphyocwuneuy toipun ***cwungyohata****.*
'Since the learning of a foreign language differs from the acquisition of a native language, the introduction of a non-standard language into the textbook is **important**.' (KL: 42

Self-mentions refer to the explicit presence of the writer in the text, as in the first-person pronouns *I*, *my* and the inclusive *we* and *us*. Example 2.5 illustrates the way first-person pronouns in English and Korean we and *wuli* 'we' are used in research articles.

Example 2.5: we & *wuli* 'we'

(1) In order to understand how much of their phraseology two writers have in common, **we** should ideally take into account all of their shared sequences. (EL: 03)

(2) 일상생활에서 **우리**는 일반적으로 동사 위주의 동사 문체를 사용한다.
ilsangsaynghwaleyse ***wuli****nun ilpancekulo tongsa wicwuuy tongsa mwuncheylul sayonghanta.*
'In everyday life, **we** usually use a verb writing style with verb forms.' (KL: 44)

Unlike other studies of stance, stance in Hyland's (2005b) interactional model focuses on the way writers express and position themselves toward what they are writing, whereas engagement concerns the way writers interact and align with readers in the text. Given that academic writing is considered a social activity, however, it is not the case that there is no interpersonal feature involved in stance in academic writing. Hyland's interactional model contains two dimensions of interpersonal features in which stance is a view from the writers' perspective and engagement is a view from the readers' perspective. Taking Hyland's interactional model as a framework, this dissertation will explore interpersonal devices from the writers' perspective and examine the use of the stance markers cross-linguistically in English and Korean research articles.

CHAPTER 3

DATA AND METHOD

3.1 Introduction

This section describes the methodology used for the research, and it is divided into two major parts. The first part will explain the design and construction of the corpora used in this study, including descriptions of text samples, the corpus size and the process of text formatting, coding and cleaning up. The second part will provide the procedure for linguistic item selection and the rationales behind it, and describe the methodology used to identify and analyze stance markers throughout this dissertation.

3.2 Corpus

3.2.1 Corpora design

The academic writing corpora of two different languages were created according to a cross-linguistic and cross-cultural approach. The corpus for Korean academic writing consists of 50 published research articles written in the Korean language in the field of applied linguistics (hereafter KL), and the corpus of English academic writing also contains 50 journal articles, written in English, from applied linguistics (hereafter EL). A total of 100 published research articles were selected from the period 2012–2017, focusing on the synchronic patterns, in that diachronic variations and changes are beyond the scope of this study. All journal articles were taken from refereed, leading, and prestigious journals chosen on the basis of their 2016 impact factors. The journals are listed in the following table, which also shows the numbers of words counted per paper in the corpora, comprising 609,380 words.

Table 3.1. Corpora of research articles in Korean and English

Language	Name of Research Journals	Number of Research Journals	Number of Words
Korean	*Discourse and Cognition*	10	43,886
	Studies in foreign language education	10	40,912
	Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics	10	45,454
	Bilingual Research	10	36,188
	Teaching Korean as a Foreign Language	10	45,814
	Total	50	212,254
English	*Applied Linguistics*	10	70,661
	Foreign Language Annals	10	75,630
	Language Learning	10	97,595
	The Modern Language Journal	10	79,077
	TESOL Quarterly	10	94,163
	Total	50	397,126

Each journal article was semi-randomly selected within these three limits: a single author, no overlap in authors and an experimental study. Works with multiple authors were excluded in order to avoid confusion in the use of the pronoun *we*, whether used as inclusive or exclusive. To incorporate as much variation as possible, overlap between research articles with authors was not allowed during the text selection process. Since linguistic choice could be different based on the types of research, only experimental research was selected, including both quantitative and qualitative studies.

There was no consideration of whether the authors of the research articles were native speakers or not, in that the purpose of this study was to investigate conventions and practices shared by members of each academic discourse community, not each speech community. In the Korean applied linguistics community, a great majority of readers and authors are native speakers of Korean. In contrast, the English applied linguistics community is one of the typical academic discourse communities with broad international authorship and readership. The

influence of possibility of various first-language backgrounds and multicultural backgrounds is not only an inevitable result, but is also is a cultural feature of the English applied linguistic community.[3]

Whereas membership in a speech community is given by birth or adoption, the membership of a discourse community is achieved by individual choice and effort. The participatory mechanisms agreed to by members of each academic discourse community could be learned through observations, training, and experience regardless of whether the authors of the research articles are native speakers or not. Otherwise, their research articles are unlikely to be published, especially in such leading and prestigious journals in the field of applied linguistics in English and Korean as were used for this study. This is why previous studies paid attention to the lack of knowledge of conventions and norms that native speakers of the language showed as a new member of an academic discourse community (Lea & Street, 1998; Jones, Turner & Street, 2001). In sum, the corpora for this study comprised 100 published experimental articles with 100 single authors with a knowledge and understanding of their own discipline discourse community.

3.2.2 Text formatting and coding process

One hundred pre-selected published academic writings in PDF format (.pdf) were converted into plain text format (.txt) to be compatible with the concordance tool. The conversion from electronic to plain text format was done in one of two ways. The text samples downloaded from publisher websites or electronic journal websites were in digitally created PDF format that were easily transformed into text files using PDF converter software. However, some

[3] Note that since it is beyond the scope of this dissertation, I did not attempt to investigate relations between linguistic and extralinguistic factors, particularly interspeaker variation such as age, gender, and social network. However, further study on linguistic choices based on authors' age, gender, and social network would be meaningful in exploring this issue in detail (cf. Linguistic variation in Bell, 1984).

scanned PDF files had to be converted into plain text format by Optical Character Recognition (OCR) software, ABBYY FineReader 14. The errors, misrecognized characters and misspellings in text or symbols that were created by the formatting process were manually cleaned and corrected.

All non-textual elements such as tables, figures, graphs, charts, maps, photographs, drawings, etc., were excluded in the corpora. Such textual elements which do not reveal the authors' voice and references, examples, quotations were also removed from the corpora. To avoid the repetition, abstracts were not included, on the basis that stance markers occurring in an abstract reoccur in the subsequent main chapters. Lastly, headings, sub-headings and footnotes (word-level and phrase-level) in the original texts were eliminated during the cleaning-up process.

3.3 Data Analysis

3.3.1 Corpus search

Once compiled, the items were searched using the latest version of AntConc 3.5.7 (Anthony, 2018). The AntConc is a concordance tool for corpus analysis research, distributed freely for personal use for non-profit research purposes. A concordance tool is software that allows the user to explore "a list of all of occurrences of a particular search term in corpus, presented in which they occur" (Baker, Hardie & McEnery, 2006, p. 42-43). It is a great tool for this study, as it displays the targeted word in the context in which it is embedded. This keyword in context (KWIC) format plays an important role in processing corpus data in that it allows us not only to understand the textual function of the searched word within context by showing preceding and subsequent words, but also to sort the list for identifying patterns in the use of targeted items. Figure 3.1 below is a screenshot of the concordance results for the term 'might' in

AntConc. It shows one line of the KWIC result, but, if a certain token is selected, a tap on File View allows one to see the entire file in which the token appears and to analyze how it interacts with linguistic items in a broader context.

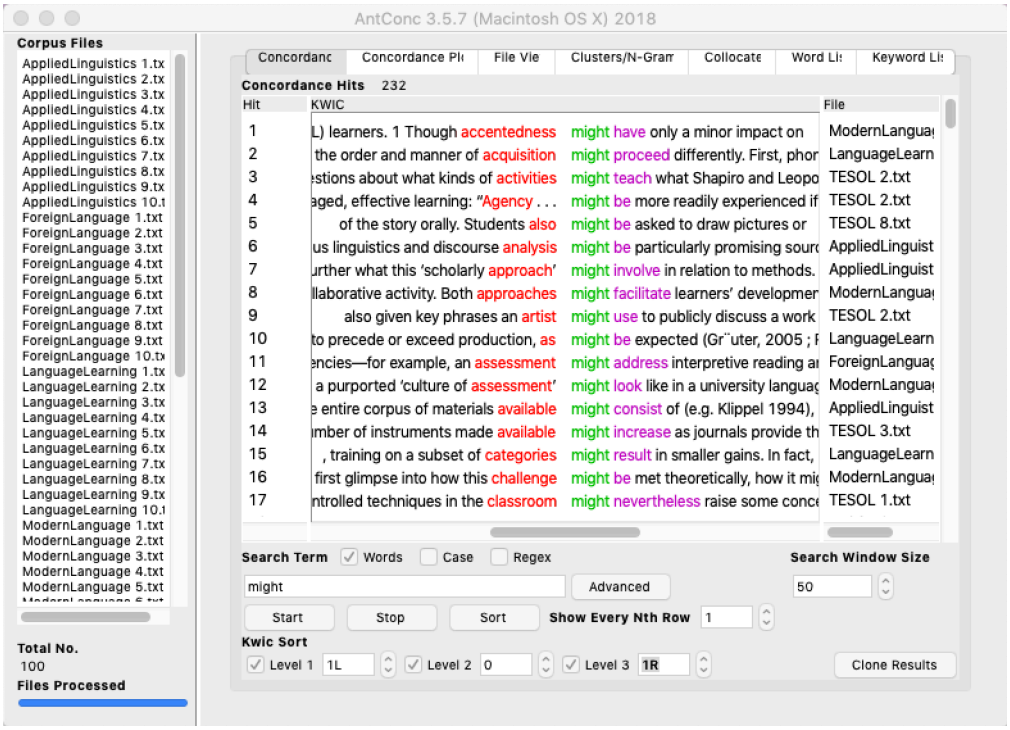

Figure 3.1. Screenshot of concordance lines for the tern 'might' in AntConc

3.3.2 Linguistic item identification

Each corpus contains 50 research articles: ten articles from ten research journals (i.e., five English journals and five Korean Journals) were semi-randomly pre-selected to identify the stance markers presented in English and Korean academic writing. For the Korean data, each linguistic device was carefully examined and selected using for reference the results of previous works (Hyland, 2005a; Sin, 2006; Y. Shin, 2011; J. Lee, 2012). With regard to the English corpus, Hyland's (2005a) interactional model for academic writing incorporating the four types of stance markers (i.e., hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention) was adopted and used for the analysis of stance markers in research articles in English. The list of stance markers

provided by Hyland (2005a) was employed as a baseline for a cross-linguistic comparison between stance markers in English and Korean academic writing. Hyland (2005a)'s list of stance markers has been used in previous studies (N. I. Lee, 2011; Sanjaya, 2013; Akinci, 2016). His list has been adopted because it is a result not only of careful quantitative analysis, but also of insightful qualitative analysis based on a considerable amount of data from a variety of disciplines. As he warned in his latest edition of *Metadiscourse* (Hyland, 2018), however, the linguistic item should be carefully adapted to our own data through careful consideration. We should thoroughly examine to see whether the items on the list function as metadiscourse devices in our data and whether there are more linguistic items that should be added to the list. In this respect, a considerable number of stance markers were added to the list based on a thorough and careful examination of stance markers. For example, the attitude marker device in English *significant* was added to Hyland's list. It is interesting that *significant* is not included in the list, considering its similarity in meaning to the attitude marker *important* on the list. Meanwhile, linguistic items on Hyland's list, which were not identified in the present corpus (e.g., *from my perspective*, *guess* and *shocking*) were excluded in the list of stance markers used for this study. Figure 3.2 shows total numbers of linguistic items in each category of stance markers in both the English and Korean corpora, and the graphical presentation of the change in numbers of linguistic items of each stance marker is illustrated in Figure 3.3. The lists of stance markers in English and Korean explored in this study are listed in Appendix A and B, respectively.

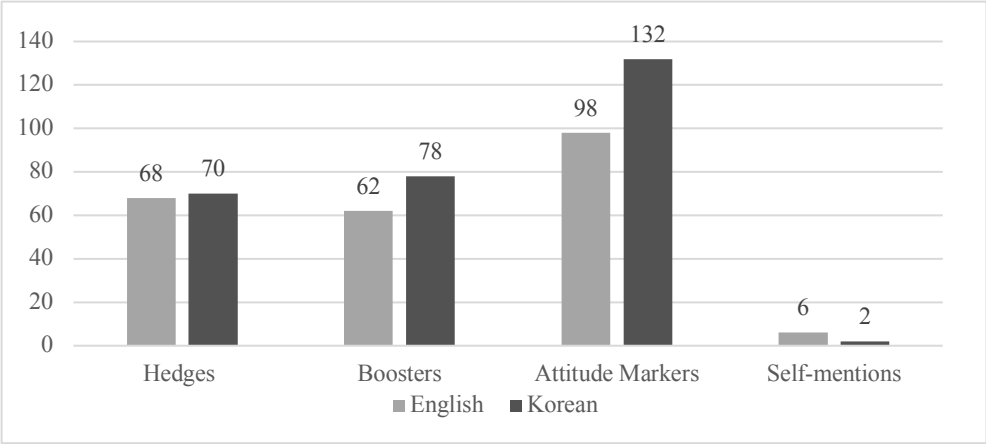

Figure 3.2. Total numbers of linguistic items of stance markers in both corpora

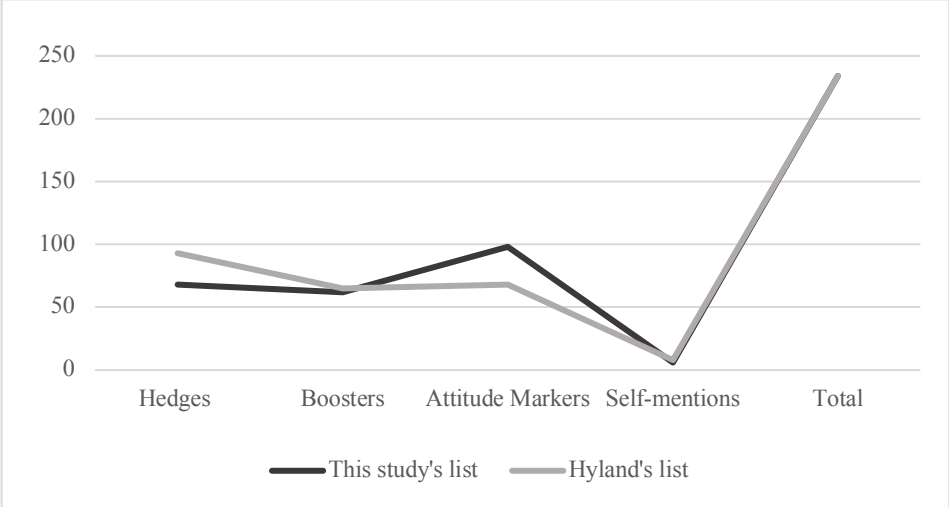

Figure 3.3. Changes in numbers of linguistic items in stance markers in the English data

The pre-identified items were examined manually due to the "multifunctionality" of some items, in that a linguistic device used as a certain feature can serve another function somewhere else, even across sub-categories (Halliday, 1985; Crismore, 1990; Salager-Meyer, 1994; Crompton, 1997; Abdollahzadeh, 2011). For example, the frequent hedge marker *cacwu* 'often, frequent' was count as a hedge device only when it expressed the indefinite frequency implication. On the other hand, it was not considered as a stance marker when used with comparative or superlative adverbs in such expressions as *te cacwu* 'more often,' *pota cacwu* 'more often than' and *kacang cacwu* 'most often,' because it concerns the definite volume

instead of describing the indefinite frequency, in order to convey the author's tentativeness. Another example was the English modal verb *may*, which contains deontic modality as well as epistemic modality. Since the deontic modality *may* is not considered a stance marker, the deontic modal verb *may* with a permission meaning was excluded, and the epistemic *may* carrying a possibility meaning was included as a hedge item.

The main purpose of the corpus-based study is to uncover "generalizable patterns of language use," but qualitative analysis is inevitable for "generalizable results" (Biber, 2009, p. 1287). As an analytic tool, in this respect, interpretive and qualitative research methods have been employed for data analysis in that they allow for analysis of how stance markers interact with context and what discourse functions the stance markers encode within the context.

CHAPTER 4

STATISTICAL RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the statistical results of stance markers selected by members of the academic community of English and Korean applied linguistics. The goal of this chapter is to answer research question 1, which is whether English and Korean scholars in the field of applied linguistics use stance markers differently or similarly. Section 4.2 illustrates the descriptive statistical analysis of stance markers by presenting raw frequencies, normalized frequencies (per 1,000 words), percentages of each stance marker and values of mean, minimum, maximum and standard deviation. The inferential statistics analysis (e.g., Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, Shapiro-Wilk test, independent sample t-test and Mann-Whitney Test) will also be described, to examine the statistical difference in the use of stance markers between English and Korean research articles in Section 4.3. A statistical limitation of a cross-linguistic study will be discussed in Section 4.4.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics of Stance Markers in English and Korean Research Articles

This section examines whether there were quantitative similarities or differences in the frequency of stance markers across English and Korean research articles in applied linguistics. Table 4.1 shows the raw frequency of each stance marker and the total number of instances of stance markers in both corpora. The quantitative results of data showed that the use of stance markers was found to be both different and similar between members of both the English and Korean applied linguistics academic communities.

Table 4.1. Raw frequency of stance markers in English and Korean corpora

Languages		English	Korean
Stance markers	Hedges	4,478	4,981
	Boosters	3,701	3,257
	Attitude markers	2,364	3,035
	Self-mention	864	67
Total		11,407	11,340
Mean (EL: n=50, KL: n=50)		228.14	226.8

The total number of stance markers found in the English corpus was 11,407, and the Korean corpus included 11,340 stance markers. Combining the means of four categories of stance markers, the average numbers of stance markers in research articles in the English and Korean languages in the corpora (EL: n=50, KL: n=50) were 228.14 and 226.8, respectively. There appeared to be no outstanding differences between the two corpora.

It should be noted, however, that the size of the English applied linguistics corpus was 397,126 words, which is larger than the Korean corpus, with 212,254 words in total. When the sizes of two compared corpora are different, looking at raw frequencies of the two corpora gives a big-picture view of the data, but comparing raw frequencies of the two corpora could be misleading. Normalization of data is required to compare texts of different lengths. Adopting a formula introduced by Biber et al. (1998), a normalized statistical analysis was conducted. For normalized frequency, all counts were normalized to their occurrence per 1,000 words of text, using the following formula:

$$\text{Normalized frequency} = \frac{\text{Number of stance markers in the corpus}}{\text{Total number of words in the corpus}} \times 1{,}000$$

The following table (Table 4.2) illustrates the results of normalized frequencies of stance markers in the English and Korean research article corpora used for this dissertation. Overall frequencies of the occurrence of stance markers were 28.72 per 1,000 words used by the members of the English academic community, and 56.75 per 1,000 words used by those of the Korean academic community. The normalized frequency distribution of data revealed that stance markers were employed almost twice as many linguistic items by researchers in the Korean corpus than by those in the English corpus.

Table 4.2. Normalized frequency of stance markers per 1,000 words

Languages		English	Korean
Stance markers	Hedges	11.276 (39.257%)	23.467 (43.924%)
	Boosters	9.319 (32.445%)	15.345 (28.721%)
	Attitude markers	5.953 (20.724%)	14.3 (26.764%)
	Self-mention	2.176 (7.574%)	0.315 (0.591%)
Total		28.724 (100.00%)	53.427 (100.00%)

The results of normalized distribution revealed members of the Korean academic community in the corpora tend to use more interpersonal devices than do the members of the English academic community. The Korean research article corpus contains almost twice as many stance markers as in the English corpus. Hedges, boosters, and attitude markers were more common in research papers written by members of the Korean academic community than in those written by English applied linguists. Self-mention was more frequently incorporated in the English corpus than in the Korean corpus. The percentages of each stance marker are illustrated in the following figure.

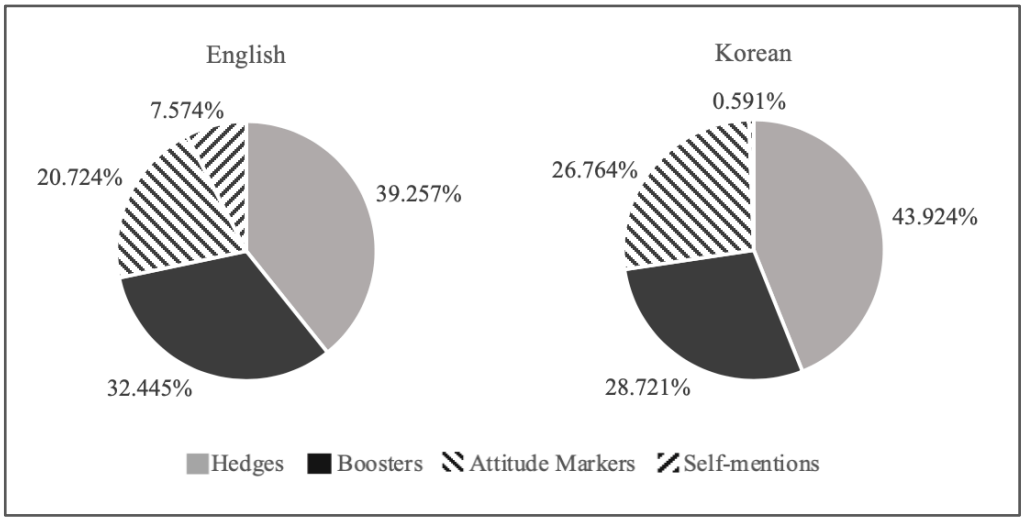

Figure 4.1. Proportions of each stance marker in the English and Korean corpora

As illustrated in Figure 4.1, both English and Korean data show a similar pattern of percentage distribution of stance markers in the following order: hedges > boosters > attitude markers > self-mention. Among all four categories of stance markers, hedges turned out to be the most popular device among members of the linguistic academic communities in both Korean and English. In both corpora, approximately 40 percent of interpersonal linguistic sources in the corpora were hedging devices. Boosters were the second most frequently found stance marker, followed by attitude markers in in both corpora. Self-mention was the least frequently used stance marker by both the English and Korean linguistic communities.

Table 4.3 presents the result of the descriptive statistics of stance markers in the English and Korean research article corpora. On one hand, the mean numbers of hedges and attitude markers in the Korean data are larger than those in the English data. On the other hand, the English corpus contained higher mean numbers in boosters and self-mentions.

Table 4.3. Descriptive statistics of stance markers in the English and Korean corpora

Stance Markers	Hedges		Boosters		Attitude Markers		Self-mention	
	EL	KL	EL	KL	EL	KL	EL	KL
Number	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Mean	89.56	99.62	74.02	65.14	47.28	60.70	17.28	1.34
Standard Deviation	35.60	30.46	22.45	23.06	17.6	28.53	23.92	3.19
Minimum	29	51	30	28	5	12	0	0
Maximum	227	175	119	119	89	124	89	19

The smallest mean difference (8.88) between the two corpora was observed in the booster category, and the largest difference between mean scores (15.94) appeared in the self-mention category. Minimum scores indicated that all research papers incorporated hedges, boosters and attitude markers, but not all research papers were involved with self-mention in both languages. In addition, the mean and standard deviation of each stance marker suggested that the use of self-mention is the most dispersed and inconsistent among members in both the English and Korean applied linguistic communities.

4.3 Inferential Statistics of Stance Markers in English and Korean Research Articles

In order to answer research question 1, inferential statistics were performed in SPSS (SPSS 22.0, SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). Based on the sample size (n = 50), both Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (n > 50) and Shapiro-Wilk test (n < 50) were conducted for testing normality of distribution of stance markers in the present corpora at 95% confidence levels ($p < .05$).

Table 4.4. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests for normal distribution

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Hedges	EL	.117	50	.083	.929	50	.005**
	KL	.107	50	.200	.957	50	.070
Boosters	EL	.047	50	.200	.985	50	.754
	KL	.082	50	.200	.963	50	.123
Attitude Markers	EL	.074	50	.200	.985	50	.761
	KL	.107	50	.200	.953	50	.046*
Self-mention	EL	.247	50	.000***	.725	50	.000***
	KL	.342	50	.000***	.477	50	.000***

*Statistical significance at $p<.05$, ** Statistical significance at $p<.01$, *** Statistical significance at $p<.001$

The results of a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in hedges, boosters and attitude markers ($p > .05$) suggested that normality is a reasonable assumption; however, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for self-mention results ($p = .000$) failed to reject the normal distribution hypothesis (H0). Since the assumption of normality was not fulfilled for the parametric test in one category of stance markers (i.e., self-mention), both a parametric test and a non-parametric test were applied to determine whether the frequencies in four categories of stance markers between the English and Korean corpora of research articles in applied linguistics were statistically different. T-test as a parametric test and Mann-Whitney test as a non-parametric test were performed, and the results of the independent sample t-test are presented in the following table.

Table 4.5. Parametric test: Independent sample t-test

		N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t	Sig.
Hedges	EL	50	89.56	35.60	-1.518	.132
	KL	50	99.62	30.46		
Boosters	EL	50	74.20	22.45	1.952	.054
	KL	50	65.14	23.06		
Attitude Markers	EL	50	47.28	17.16	-2.831	.006**
	KL	50	60.70	28.53		
Self-mention	EL	50	17.28	23.92	4.671	.000***
	KL	50	1.34	3.19		

*Statistical significance at $p<.05$, ** Statistical significance at $p<.01$, *** Statistical significance at $p<.001$

The t-values observed above refer to comparing mean values of each stance marker between the English and Korean corpora. A larger t-value means a larger difference, and a smaller t-value indicates two samples are less different and, therefore, indicate a smaller difference in frequency of stance markers between two corpora. There was no statistically significant difference in hedges and boosters. In hedges, the mean score of Korean was higher (t = -1.518) than that of English, but the mean difference was not statistically significant (p = .132; $p > .05$). A larger mean value was observed in English boosters (t = 1.952) but without a significant difference (p = .054; $p > .05$) from Korean boosters. A statistically significant difference between the English and Korean corpora was identified in attitude markers and self-mention. The mean score of attitude markers in Korean showed significantly greater difference (t = -2.381, p = .006; $p < .05$) and the greatest mean difference (t = -4.671, p = .000; $p < .05$) of the two corpora was observed in self-mention. Due to a lack of a normal distribution, however, a non-parametric test, the Mann-Whitney test, was also conducted, and the summarized results of Mann-Whitney test are presented in the following tables.

Table 4.6. Mann-Whitney test ranks

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Hedges	EL	50	45.53	2276.50
	KL	50	**55.47**	2773.50
	Total	100		
Boosters	EL	50	**56.46**	2823.00
	KL	50	44.54	2227.00
	Total	100		
Attitude Markers	EL	50	44.38	2219.00
	KL	50	**56.62**	2831.00
	Total	100		
Self-mention	EL	50	**67.12**	3356.00
	KL	50	33.88	1694.00
	Total	100		

Table 4.7. Non-parametric test: Mann-Whitney test

	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-mention
Mann-Whitney U	1001.500	952.000	944.000	419.000
Wilcoxon W	2276.500	2227.000	2219.000	1694.000
Z	1.713	2.055	2.110	5.942
Sig.	.087	***.040**	***.035**	****.000**

*Statistical significance at $p<.05$, ** Statistical significance at $p<.01$, *** Statistical significance at $p<.001$

The statistical analysis of the Mann-Whitney test showed a result in boosters different from that of the independent sample t-test. Like the results of the t-test, statistical significances were identified in attitude markers ($z = 2.110$, $p = .035$; $p < .05$) and self-mention ($z = 5.942$, $p = .000$; $p < .05$). According to the results of the Mann-Whitney test, however, a statistically significant difference exists between boosters employed in English and Korean research articles ($z = 2.055$, $p = .040$; $p < .05$). Due to abnormal distribution observed in the normal distribution

tests, the conclusion of the statistical analysis will be made based on the result of a non-parametric test, the Mann-Whitney test.

In sum, the inferential statistical analysis revealed that there was no statistical significance observed in the differences in frequencies of hedges between the English and Korean applied linguistics corpora. In contrast, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention showed cross-linguistic differences in academic discourse community, especially in research papers. More specifically, more stance markers were employed in boosters and self-mention in the English corpus, but more attitude markers were identified in the Korean corpus. The statistical differences in boosters and attitude markers in both languages are quite similar (z = 2.055, z = 2.110), and the largest statistical difference (z = 5.942) was identified in the use of self-mention between the English and Korean corpora. In other words, members of the English and Korean applied linguistics communities employ stance markers to construct their authorial stance both similarly (i.e., hedges) and differently (i.e., boosters, attitude markers and self-mention) in terms of statistical significance.

4.4 Statistical Limitation

Due to the difference in size between the corpora (EL: 397,126 words; KL: 212,254 words), normalized frequency was measured to see the frequencies of each stance marker in both corpora. However, there are structural differences in counting words between the Korean and English languages because of the different spacing systems. English has a spacing system in which spaces should be put between every single word, and the same rule applies to the Korean language. According to the 2nd clause of Article 1 in Korean orthography issued by the National

Institute of the Korean Language[4], a space should be included between words. Although particles are considered as words in the Korean language, however, the Korean language has a spacing system in which particles are attached to the elements of a sentence without a space. The Korean language is an agglutinative language because of its characteristic of attaching of particles to nominal words (nouns, pronouns, numerals, etc.), as well as attaching verb endings to predicate (verb or adjective) stems (Sohn, 1999, p. 15). Example 4.1 illustrates spacing systems in both languages.

Example 4.1: Spacing systems in English and Korean languages

(1) English: I eat breakfast between seven am and eight am every morning.

(2) Korean: 나**는**	매일	일곱 시**에서**	여덟 시	사이**에**	아침**을**	먹어요.
I-**TC**	every day	7-hour-**from**	8-hour	between-**at**	breakfast-**AC**	eat-DC

In Sentence (1), the English example contains 11 words with 10 spaces, and there are 13 words and 8 spaces with 4 particles in bold in Sentence (2). In counting words, however, Sentence (1) was counted as 11 words, but 13 words in Sentence (2) were counted as 9 words. This is because words are counted on the basis of the number of spaces. This characteristic of the Korean spacing system results in a huge difference between numbers of actual words and counted words, based on the number of spaces. It affects the corpus size and leads to a higher normalized frequency in Korean. Considering the abundant use of particles in Korean, a smaller difference in frequencies would be expected between the English and Korean corpora, and it would affect the statistical analysis obtained in the previous chapters. Thus, the statistical difference between the two communities in the present study was recommended only for better understanding of the

[4] Based on Unification Plan of Korean orthography (1933) by the Chosun Language Society, The National Institute of the Korean Language first published in 1988. It was implemented in 1989, and the most recent version of it was issued in 2018. (The National Institute of the Korean Language: https://www.korean.go.kr/)

overall dynamics of the stance markers in English and Korean research articles in applied linguistics. Instead of focusing on specific frequency numbers, the present study will use the proportions of each marker of total stance markers in a comparison of the patterns of stance markers between English and Korean corpora. I expect this will allow us to identify the pattern and tendency of stance markers preferred in research articles, which could lead us to better understand the motivation and rationale behind their use.

CHAPTER 5

STANCE MARKERS IN RESEARCH ARTICLES OF ENGLISH AND KOREAN

5.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to examine authors' use of stance markers in research articles in English and Korean from a cross-cultural and cross-linguistic perspective. This chapter provides a qualitative analysis based on the quantitative results presented in the previous chapter to discover the linguistic practice and conventions, and the cultural value and norms, embedded in the academic disciplinary community (i.e., applied linguistics) of English and Korean. Both sections (Section 5.2 and 5.3) contain four sub-sections covering four stance markers (i.e., hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mentions) identified in the corpora of research articles in English and Korean. Through a close examination of stance markers used in research articles, this chapter presents not only the grammatical and structural characteristics but also cultural values and norms, which have been shared and practiced by both members of English and Korean applied linguistics. Building on these linguistic and cultural features of each language, this chapter illustrates cross-linguistic and cross-cultural comparison and the ways in which stance markers allow the members of each academic community to accomplish their goals and maintain solidarity among themselves. Finally, Section 5.4 concludes this chapter with an overview of the characteristics of the use of stance markers in English and Korean research articles in the corpus.

5.2 Stance Markers in English research articles

5.2.1 Hedges

Hedges were the most commonly used stance marker, accounting for 39.257% of the total stance markers in the English corpus of research papers in applied linguistics. The high frequency of hedges in research articles supports other research, which found heavy use of hedging in the 'soft disciplines' (Hyland, 2005b; Abdi, 2002; Abdollahzadeh, 2011; Taki & Jafarpour, 2012; Sanjaya, 2013; Akinci, 2016). According to Hyland (2005b), disciplinary variation among different fields allows for difference in the frequency of hedges in research articles. The authors in soft areas tend to employ rhetorical strategies more frequently to build a common ground for understanding with readers, due to its more discursive and less abstract features. By contrast, the cumulative knowledge of hard science and its cohesive readership allow for researchers to have 'succinct communication' with less frequent rhetorical practices (p. 187-188).

Although there was no significant difference was identified in the use of hedges between the English and Korean corpora, a close examination of hedges revealed that both academic discourse communities have their own distinctive linguistic features. Out of the 4,478 hedge devices in the English data, 1,779 (39.73%) were modal verbs, 1,546 (34.52%) were adverbs, 780 (17.42%) were verbs, 283 (6.32%) were adjectives, 81 (1.81%) were prepositions, and 9 (0.2%) were nouns. The frequencies of grammatical categories of hedges in the English applied linguistics corpus are presented in Figure 5.1.

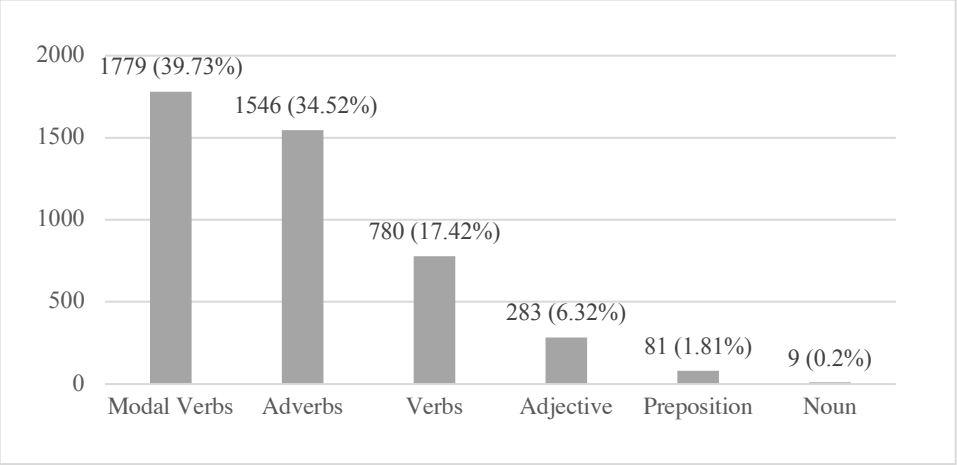

Figure 5.1. Frequencies of grammatical categories of hedges in the English corpus

Modal verbs and adverbs are the two most commonly used grammar categories, at 39.73% and 34.52%, respectively. The most noticeable difference in grammatical categories between English and Korean corpora could be found in adverb categories. English adverbs occurred second most frequently, 34.20% of hedges, which was almost twice (1.88 times) as high as the occurrence of verbs, with 18.20% of hedges. In Korean data, however, adverbs were identified less frequently (18.17%) than were verbs (24.71%). Not only is the frequency higher, but the variety is also much greater among adverbs in the English corpus, in that the adverb category of the Korean data contained 21 items, whereas 34 adverbs hedge expressions were identified in the English data. In the English language, this result may occur because using adverbials is one of the most common ways of marking speakers/writers' stance (Biber & Finegan, 1988) and 'stance adverbs' often function as hedging devices with a degree of certainty or doubt (Biber et al., 1999).

Table 5.1. Types of functions of hedges in the corpus of English applied linguistics

Functions		Frequency	Examples
Possibility		1,823 (40.71%)	*may*, *could*, *might*, *possible, likely*
Approximation		1,188 (26.53%)	
Non-entirety	454 (10.04%)		*generally*, *typically*, *almost*
Frequency	428 (09.47%)		*often*, *frequently*, *sometimes*
Degree	306 (06.77%)		*rather*, *around*, *approximately*
Assumption		997 (22.26%)	*would*, *appear*, *seem*, *tend to*
Otherness		258 (05.76%)	*indicate*, *indicated*
Limitation		182 (04.07%)	*relatively*, *feel*, *in my opinion*
Uncertainty		30 (00.67%)	*unclear*, *doubt*, *uncertain*
Total		4,478 (100.00%)	

With regard to the function of hedges, the possibility category (e.g., *may*, *could*, *might*) is, among the various functions of hedges, the most favored hedge device (40.32%) in English research articles in applied linguistics. It is not surprising that the second most popular function of hedges (26.28%) in English research articles was the approximation category, in that hedges are commonly associated with numbers and quantities (Biber et al., 1999). The approximation category consists of three sub-categories: non-entirety, frequency and degree. Non-entirety refers to authors' linguistic realizations to draw conclusions based on 'non-entire' examples (e.g., *generally*, *typically* and *usually*). Frequency includes linguistic devices that express the amount number of repetition of events during a particular period, including *often*, *frequently* and *sometimes*. Degree indicates the extent to which the proposition is perceived in a certain way, and such degree expressions as *approximately*, *somewhat* and r*elatively* are included in this category. The approximation category is followed by the assumption category (21.9%), and it includes the most diverse expressions of hedges in English. The most frequent and dominant assumption hedge is *would* (45.21% of assumption), followed by *seem* (11.15% of assumption) and *appear* (9.39% of assumption). Otherness refers to the linguistic device that allows authors

to express propositions or arguments from a third person's perspective. The otherness category of English contains only both the active and passive forms of *indicate* (i.e., *indicate*, *indicated*), whereas 15 patterns of otherness were found in the Korean corpus. The limitation category includes such expressions as *relatively, in my opinion* and *to my knowledge*, which set bounds to the scope of the argument being made. It is interesting to find that the uncertainty category is the least frequently used hedge, in that expressing uncertainty is one of the major functions of hedging expressions. This could show the salient feature of the hedges employed in the academic discourse community, which is the inclination to express an argument or proposition in an indirect and implicit way, avoiding a direct and explicit expression of tentativeness and uncertainty.

Table 5.2. Top 10 frequent hedges in the English corpus (per 1,000 words)

Hedges	Frequency		Functions
	Raw	Normalized	
may	694	1.75	Possibility
would	484	1.22	Assumption
could	370	0.93	Possibility
might	228	0.57	Possibility
often	225	0.57	Approximation: Frequency
possible	201	0.51	Possibility
likely	180	0.45	Possibility
frequently	151	0.38	Approximation: Frequency
Indicate	143	0.36	Otherness
seem	120	0.30	Assumption
Total	2,796	7.04	

The top ten most commonly used hedges with normalized frequencies in the English applied linguistics corpus are summarized in Table 5.2. Apparently, the five most frequently occurring devices (i.e., three modal verbs and two adjectives) are included in the possibility category. In addition to modal verbs, two adjectives (e.g., *possible*, *likely*) were also frequently

found in the corpora to indicate the 'possibility' of what is being presented. Having less chance of happening, *possible,* with a raw frequency of 201 was slightly more frequently selected than was *likely,* with a raw frequency of 180, which indicates a greater chance of occurring. Regarding the approximation category, only frequency adverbs are included in the list of the top ten frequent hedges. With more general use and less restriction, *often* (225 tokens) occurred more commonly than *frequently* (151 tokens), which has periodic implications. Due to a high reliance on two frequency adverbs (i.e, *often* and *frequently*), they are in the list of the top frequent hedges, although the three from the sub-category of approximation occurred at a similar rate overall. On the other hand, a relative variety of hedge items were identified in the degree and non-entirety categories (13 and 10 items, respectively).

Modal verbs are the most common hedges, identified as 39.35% of the entire hedges in the corpus of Applied Linguistics in the following order: *may* (39.01%) > *would* (25.97%) > *could* (19.84%) > *might* (12.82%) > *ought* (0.17%), as shown in Figure 5.2.

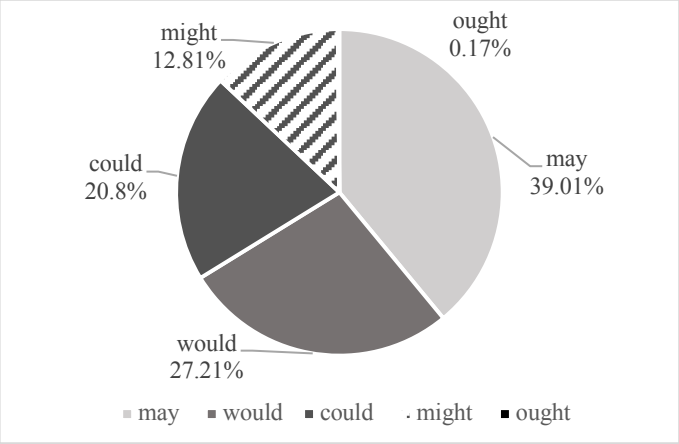

Figure 5.2. Frequency of modal verbs in hedges in the English corpus

The modal verb *may* occurred most frequently, accounting for 39.01% among all modal verbs and 15.21% in the entire English research article corpus. A large number of uses of the modal verb *may* in the published research papers in the field of English linguistics is consistent

with previous studies (Sanjaya, 2013; Akinci, 2016). The other frequent modal verbs with "possibility" meaning are *could* (19.84% among modal verbs) and *might* (12.82%). The modal verbs – *could*, *may* and *might* in particular – have been considered as expressions for "logical possibility" (Biber et al., 1999, p. 491) in academic writing. Members of the English-speaking academic community in applied linguistics seem inclined to use stance markers to put their findings and arguments in a careful way; however, they try to avoid making it too weak by choosing *may* or *could* more frequently than *might*. This is probably because the modal verb *might* is considered a slightly more tentative modal verb than the modal verb *may* (Palmer, 1990; Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). In addition, the difference in frequency between *could* and *might* seems to be a result of their different origins. In the academic discourse community of applied linguistics, *could*, with a higher degree of probability, is preferred to *might* (Larreya, 2003) in that, whereas *might* originated from the epistemic modal verb *may*, *could* was derived from *can* with deontic possibility (Gresset, 2003). Another possible explanation is the difference in practice observed between spoken and written discourse. According to the result of Collins's (2009) quantitative analysis, the epistemic *might* occurs more frequently in spoken discourse than in written discourse, whereas the epistemic *may* occurs far more frequently in written discourse than in spoken discourse (p. 112).

Interestingly, the frequency order of the modal verbs in the possibility category mirrors exactly the order in the previous studies (Sanjaya, 2013; Akinci, 2016). Considering that published research papers in the field of civil engineering showed a different frequency order of modal verbs (*could* > *may* >>> *might*; Akinci, 2016) than the frequency order of modal verbs in applied linguistics research articles, the use of modal verbs seems favored in this order by members of English applied linguistic community. The sentences in the following example

illustrate how three modal verbs express tentative possibility associated with a situation in which authors build their arguments based on experiments or observations using slightly different degrees of tentativeness and cautiousness. In Sentence (1), the most preferred modal verb *may* is used when the author builds a logical reasoning, which the author believes is valid, in a careful way. Similarly, *might* in Sentence (2) expresses the possibility of the proposition in a more tentative way by expressing a lower degree of likeliness. Finally, the modal verb *could* suggests possible explanations for the unexpected results in Sentence (3).

Example 5.1: *may*, *might* & *could*

(1) *A heightened sensitivity to linguistic features resulting from having learned additional languages along with nonnative rater status* ***may*** *therefore result in the assignment of less favorable ratings, along the lines of Rossiter's (2009) finding for fluency.* (EL: 25)

(2) *To proponents of canonical HVPT, this* ***might*** *support the claim that natural variation is all that promotes learning.* (EL: 28)

(3) *As occurred with the linguistic characteristics, it was expected that the IL speakers would reach the threshold; however, this result* ***could*** *have been another instance where the whole was greater than the sum of its parts, or it* ***could*** *have been due to many of the responses being rehearsed and thus not able to be rated.* (EL: 11)

The high frequency of the modal verb *would* is also attributed to the characteristics of the academic discourse community. According to Ward, Kaplan & Birner (2003), the use of the epistemic *would* "conventionally implicates that the speaker believes she or he has conclusive objective (that is, empirical or logical) evidence for the truth of the proposition encoded in the utterance." (p. 75) The epistemic *would* requires empirically or logically verifiable evidence, and it is unlikely to incorporate a prediction or a wild guess without that objective evidence. In

contrast to the modal verb *would*, the use of *seem* concerns the broader applicability of assumption, even including the speaker/writer's impression. Provable evidence based on experimentation or logical hypothesis is not necessary in the construction of *seem,* which suggests the evidence less reliable and inconclusive. Thus, the *would* structure, which requires objective and verifiable evidence, results in a high frequency of occurrence of *would* in the academic discourse community when the evidence of the proposition needs to be examined and proven. Example 5.2 presents authors' use of assumption hedges to convey their level of confidence in the proposition in research articles. The author's use of the modal verb *would* in Sentence (1) demonstrates that *would* expresses the predictability of the past state on the basis of a logical deductive process. The use of the booster modal verb *must* allows the construction of *would* to carry the predictability with a high confidence level. In contrast to the use of *would* in Sentence (1), the use of *seem* in Sentence (2) shows lower confidence in the proposition being expressed, in that it is based on a general belief stated using such hedge expressions as *like* and *generally*.

Example 5.2: *would* & *seem*

(1) *No students fit the dyslexic poor reader profile, which* ***would*** *be expected* <u>*because*</u> *to comprehend a written language, one* <u>*must*</u> *first decode the words*. (EL: 15)

(2) *In language teaching, we must rely on a small number of case studies in which equivalent matters come up (e.g., Hayes, 2010); but it* ***seems*** <u>*likely*</u> *that many language teachers, like teachers* <u>*generally*</u>*, do not see their work as moral and are not supported in seeing their work as broadly moral let alone sociopolitical in nature*. (EL: 44)

Interestingly, although the Korean data contain co-occurrences of modal predicates of stance markers, especially hedges and boosters, English modal predicates rarely incorporate each

other in the present corpus of research articles. Of course, the grammatical constraint of English, where modal verbs cannot occur together, does not allow for the use of the co-occurrence of modal verbs. However, modal verbs can be used with other grammar constituents such as quasi modal verbs (e.g., *need to*, *have to*)[5], adjectives (e.g., *possible*, *likely*) and verbs (e.g., *indicate*, *seem*), and the co-occurrence with them is a commonly employed and shared practice in the English-speaking community. For example, combinations of modal expression hedges with possibility meaning such as *may be possible*, *might be possible* and *could be possible* are frequently used in both spoken and written discourse in the English-speaking community. In our English corpus, however, *may be possible* and *might be possible* hardly occurred (2 times and 1 time, respectively), and there was no instance of *could be possible*. Another example is one of the frequent co-occurrences of hedges with assumption meaning, the use of *would seem* and *would appear*. Despite their high frequencies of use in the English-speaking community, they were not commonly employed, at the respective frequencies of 5 and 4 times in the present corpus of research articles of applied linguistics.

One more interesting comparison between the English and Korean corpora could be observed in the combination of hedges of possibility and of assumption. The incorporation of possibility and assumption is the most frequent combination in the Korean corpus and they frequently co-occur in the English-speaking community. Among commonly occurring combinations of English with possibility and assumption meanings (e.g., *may seem*, *may appear*, *could seem*, could appear, might seem, might appear, *would be likely*, *would be unlikely* and *would be possible*), however, none was identified as a common practice in the present English corpus of research articles of applied linguistics. Most of them never appeared in the corpus, and

[5] Since quasi modal verbs are incorporated with boosters, the co-occurrence of quasi modal verbs and modal verbs will be discussed in the booster chapter, 5.2.2.

some expressions, such as *may seem*, *would be likely* and *would be unlikely,* were scarcely found (2 instances, 1 instance and 1 instance, respectively).

5.2.2 Boosters

Boosters was the second most frequently employed stance marker, representing 32.445% of the total stance markers in the English corpus of research papers in applied linguistics. Unlike hedges, which showed no statistical difference, a significant difference ($z = 2.055$) was identified in boosters between the two corpora, and more boosters were employed in the English corpus than in the Korean corpus. Out of 3,701 booster devices in the English corpus, 1,883 (50.88%) were verbs, 726 (19.62%) were adverbs, 615 (16.62%) were modal verbs, 472 (12.75%) were adjectives, and 5 (0.13%) were nouns. Figure 5.3 illustrates how frequent each grammatical category of boosters was used in the corpus of English applied linguistics.

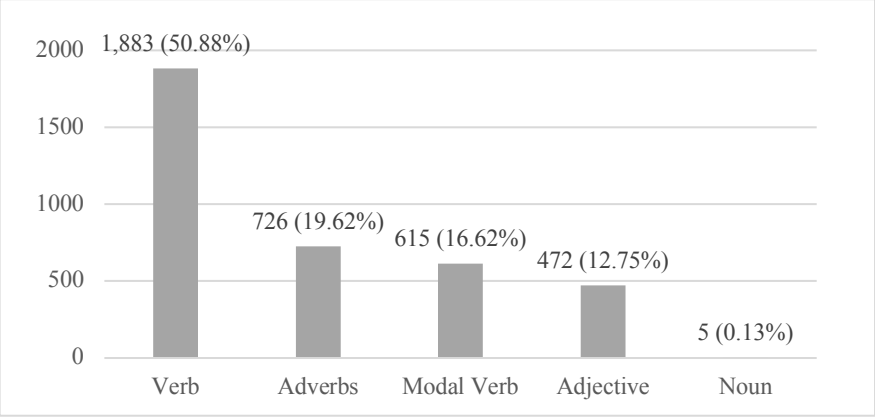

Figure 5.3. Frequencies of grammatical categories of boosters in the English corpus

The most noticeable feature of boosters in the English data is the high dependency of boosters on the verb category, with over half (50.88%) of the total boosters. This seems related to the frequency of functions of boosters in that 98.57% of the most frequent booster function (i.e., verification category) consists of verbs in the English corpus. Followed by verb category, adverb category accounted for 19.62% of the English boosters, comprising the most variety of

linguistic devices (26 items). It was the most frequent grammar category, with 36.14% of the total boosters, in the corpus of Korean applied linguistics. The next frequently used grammar was modal verbs, 85.77% of which were used to express the necessity of the proposition. That was followed by the adjective category, with 12.75% of the total boosters. The adjective category is not a commonly employed grammar category in the Korean boosters either, with 4.51% of the total boosters. Only one instance of the noun category was found (i.e., *no doubt*).

Table 5.3. Types of functions of boosters in the corpus of English applied linguistics

Functions	Frequency	Examples
Verification	1,606 (43.39%)	*suggest*, *show*, *find*, *demonstrate*
Certainty	1,069 (28.89%)	*certain*, *clear*, *indeed*, *in fact*, *know*
Necessity	717 (19.37%)	*should*, *must*, *need to*, *have to*
Emphasis	309 (08.35%)	*Especially*, *highly*, *completely*
Total	3,701 (100.00%)	

As presented in Table 5.3, the most common function of boosters in the English applied linguistics data was the verification category, with 43.39% of the total boosters. Verification boosters are the linguistic device that demonstrate authors' works, especially results, with assurance. The high percentage represented by the verification category seems to be a result of the nature of the corpora's source. The corpora for the present study comprised only experimental research articles in which authors attempt to prove what is said to be true through careful examination or investigation. Interestingly, the pattern of the results from the English corpus appeared to mirror that of results from the Korean data. The most frequent function of boosters (43.39%) in the English data, the verification category, was found to be the least common function of boosters (15.32%) in the Korean corpus. In addition, the emphasis function was used with the highest frequency, 38.44% of Korean boosters, but it was found to have the lowest frequency, 8.35% of boosters, in the English data. By drawing attention to what is argued,

boosters with the emphasis function stress the importance and trueness of the proposition or argument. All the emphasis boosters were adverbs, including *especially*, *highly*, *completely*, *really* and *considerably*. Sentence (1) in Example 5.3 describes how the verification booster *suggest* is used to present the result based on the scientific evidence (e.g., *data*, underlined in the example). By placing the emphasis booster *especially* with the attitude marker *unexpected*, the author stresses his/her unexpectedness toward the result in Sentence (2).

Example 5.3: *suggest* & *especially*

(1) *The data* ***suggests*** *that the KL2E learners' L2 production was influenced by their native language preference for bare nominals until intermediate CEFR levels*. (EL: 27)

(2) *The present results are* ***especially*** *unexpected because the learners in question are advanced learners: multilingual and experienced in terms of their language learning biography and their language proficiency*. (EL: 07)

The certainty category, which was the second most favored function of booster by members of the English applied linguistic community, is the expression of assuredness, confidence and/or commitment. Not only the largest variety of linguistic devices (30 items), but also the largest variety of grammatical categories (3 categories) were used to indicate authors' certainty, and that included adjectives (e.g., *certain*, *clear*, *indeed*), adverbs (e.g., *in fact*, *actually*, *clearly*) and verbs (e.g., *establish*, *know*, *believe*) at similar rates. The next most frequent function of boosters was the necessity category, which expresses an author's suggestion that what is said is needed for achieving the goal of the discourse community of English applied linguistics. It is not surprising that most of the necessity boosters (i.e., 5 out of 7 items) were modal verbs, considering the meanings and functions of modal verbs.

In the present study, it should be noted that mental-state verbs like *I think* and *I believe* were included in boosters. Along with *I believe*, *I know* and *I suppose*, the phrase *I think* were labelled "parenthetical verbs" by the philosopher Urmson (1952). He argues that parenthetical verbs make an argument true, not by making too strong an implication, but by demonstrating a speaker's commitment to the argument (pp. 483-484). Hooper (1975) renamed these parenthetical verbs 'weak assertives.' Syntactically, they allow complement preposing and weaken what is said in the complement, semantically (cited in Simon-Vanderbergen, 2000, p. 42). Since the study of hedging has attracted the attention of linguists, the phrase '*I think*' has been analyzed as a linguistic hedging device (Lakoff, 1972). With prosodic, syntactic and context features, Holmes (1985, 1986) distinguished the 'deliberate' *I think* from the 'tentative' *I think*. The 'tentative' *I think* indicates "uncertainty" and softens "the force of the proposition." On the other hand, the 'deliberate' *I think* expresses "confidence" and adds "weight to the proposition" (Holmes, 1986, p. 3)[6]. The recent genre studies on *I think* reveal the socio-pragmatic function in certain registers. Compared to the high frequency of *I think* found in informal conversation in Aijmer's (1997) study, for example, Simon-Vanderbergen (2000) discovered that *I think* occurred over twice as frequently in political interview discourse than in informal conversation. In addition, Simon-Vanderbergen (2000) argued the results of the analysis showed that the 'deliberate' *I think* is typical, whereas the 'tentative' *I think* is rare in the data of political interview discourse (p. 60), highlighting the importance of the nature of discourse. Unlike in casual conversation, in other words, members of the political discourse community employ *I think* to express their authority rather than to show their tentativeness and lack of certainty. Given the fact that the academic discourse community shares similarities with the political

[6] Even though she did not use the term 'boosters' for *I think* like she did to analyze *of course* (Holmes, 1990, pp. 189-191), the way she described 'deliberate' *I think* was associated the meaning and function of boosters.

discourse community (e.g., formality, argumentativeness, importance of authorship, etc.), *I think* and *I believe* were classified into boosters in this study.

According to an academic in the field of sociology who was one of the interviewees in Hyland's study of stance and engagement markers, "tough minded verbs like 'think'" are preferred because it is "important to show where you stand. The people who are best known have staked out the extreme positions." (Hyland, 2005b, p. 180). In other words, members of the academic discourse community employ *I think* to show their strong position in the text, establishing their authorship and identity. As presented in Example 5.4 below, by adding *I think* to the author's evaluation of other views, the author in Sentence (1) projects his/her commitment to the evaluation and gains credit for it.

Example 5.4: *I think*

(1) ***I think*** *such views are unsustainable, and as harmful to the plurilithic enterprise as a belief in the existence of 'an ideal speaker–hearer' or 'a perfectly homogenous speech community'.* (EL: 09)

Table 5.4. Top 10 frequent boosters in the English corpus (per 1,000 words)

Boosters	Frequency		Functions
	Raw	Normalized	
should	315	0.79	Necessity
suggest	279	0.70	Verification
show	276	0.69	Verification
find	274	0.68	Verification
demonstrate	179	0.45	Verification
found	171	0.43	Verification
shown	171	0.43	Verification
must	160	0.40	Necessity
reveal	130	0.33	Verification
need to	108	0.27	Necessity
Total	2,063	5.17	

The high dependency of the verification category on verbs explains the reason why seven verbs of the verification category were included in the top ten frequent boosters, as summarized in Table 5.4. All seven verbs are associated with the verification category. Interestingly, no certainty booster was found among the list of ten most frequent boosters, even though the certainty category was the second most commonly employed function in English boosters.

Modal verbs were not used as boosters as commonly as they were hedges in the corpus of English applied linguistics, but the list contains three modal verbs (i.e., *should*, *must* and *need to*) with the necessity function, which was the third most frequently used function, including the most frequently occurring booster *should,* with 8.51% of the total boosters. The necessity category consists of five modal verbs, with 85.42% of the necessity category accounting for 16.59% of all boosters. The five modal verbs appear in the following order, with each percentage representing the frequency of the modal verb among all boosters: *should* (51.22%) > *must* (26.02%) > *need to* (17.56%) > *have to* (5.71%) > *ought to* (0.48%) (See Figure 5.4).

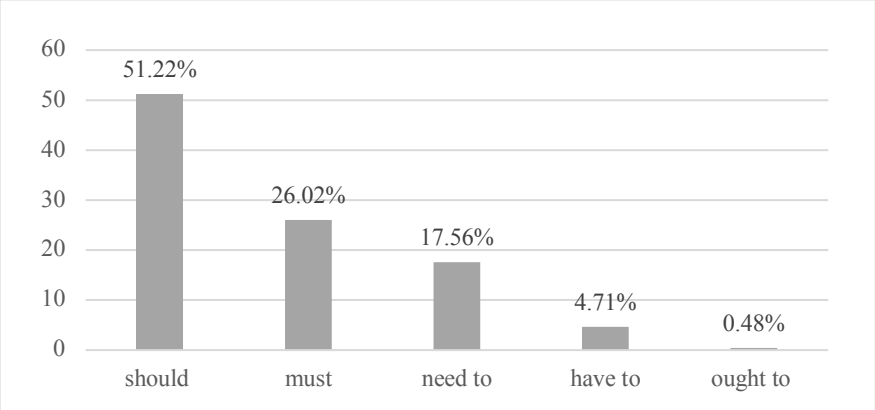

Figure 5.4. Frequency of modal verbs in hedges in the English corpus

The deontic modal verb *should* occurred with the highest frequency (51.22% of modal verbs and 8.51% of total boosters) in the English corpus. Distinguished from the strong obligation marker *must*, *should* has been considered to be "medium strength modality"

(Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 177; Collins, 2009, p. 44) or "weak obligation" (Leech, 2003, p. 234). Members of the English applied linguistics community seem inclined to use a less strong obligation/necessity marker *should* over *must*, which is considered to be a stronger obligation/necessity modal verb. The obligation/necessity marker *should* could be 'subjective' in expressing "what the speaker considers desirable, appropriate or right," or 'objective' in indicating "the appropriateness or desirability of the course of action described stands independently of the speaker's endorsement." (Collins, 2009, p. 45) This flexibility and broad scope of *should* may explain its high frequency in academic writing, in which both subjectivity and objectivity play a part in constructing an author's identity and building authors' arguments.

Interestingly, more than half (52.7%) of the use of *should* was incorporated using passive voice. The preference for the passive construction of the necessity modal verbs seems characteristic of English applied linguistic community. According to the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA; Davies, 2017), *should be* accounts for 27.56% of the total use of *should* in the entire corpus of the COCA. Although a higher frequency of *should be* (38.61%) was found in the corpus of academic journals of the COCA, the share of *should be* use (52.7%) in the present corpus was much higher. The occurrence of *must* in passive construction (41.88%) was also higher in the present corpus than in the entire corpus of the COCA (28.9%) and in the academic section of the COCA (34.99%). This result was expected, because the agentless passive construction brings objectivity into the text of research articles in which objectivity is considered to be an important practice. The passive construction is traditionally regarded as an indirectness device to "avoid a potential imposition or a threat to the speaker's/hearer's face" (Hinkel, 1997, p. 379). It is commonly employed in academic writing as

a detached marker (Biber, 1988) in that agentless passives "serve to distance the writer or speaker from the text" (Reilly, Zamora & McGivern, 2005, p. 191).

Example 5.5: *should* & *must* in active and passive constructions

(1) *We should try to understand our students' developing philosophies of teaching, and we* ***should*** *offer support to them in their development*. (EL: 34)

(2) *However, since study abroad may not be a feasible option or even a goal for every student, instructors* ***must*** *make consistent efforts to make students aware of TL populations not only around the world but, more important, in their specific state and local area, perhaps in the form of community-based and service learning opportunities*. (EL: 19)

(3) *However, when language ideology is studied in fields where ethnographic data are not in use or appropriate, new methods* ***should be*** *adapted*. (EL: 01)

(4) *Because of low token counts for some individuals, these post hoc tests* ***must be*** *interpreted with caution*. (EL: 21)

Example 5.5 describes the use of the necessity modal verbs (i.e., *should* and *must*) in both active and passive voice. Sentence (1) and (2) in Example 5.5 demonstrate that the active voice of *should* and *must* carries strong subjectivity, and that the relatively weaker subjectivity associated with objectivity is presented in the agentless passives of *should* and *must* in Sentence (3) and (4). Members of the English applied linguistics community commonly employed both the active and passive construction of two necessity modal verbs to express their dependence on the strength of subjectivity and objectivity. It should be noted, however, that the passive construction does not necessarily have to be 'no identity' or 'stanceless.' Stanceless or "faceless" writing is impossible (Hyland & Jiang, 2016), because "writing always conveys a representation of the self of the writer" (Ivanic & Camps, 2001, p. 5), especially in academic writing. Voice is one form of

'self-representation' of the authorial identity expressing a perspective on what is being said (Clark & Ivanic, 1997; Ivanic & Camps, 2001; Reilly, Zamora & McGivern, 2005). Compared with the active construction, in which the agent plays an important and active role, the agentless passive structure allows the agent to 'hide behind' it by placing the syntactic focus on the theme. In other words, the voice is the linguistic choice for expressing an author's active stance or "passive stance" (Baratta, 2009, p. 1406). This detached and indirect characteristic of the passive construction will be called 'face-hidden' in this present study because authorial identity is hidden behind the theme or the proposition in the passive construction. In sum, while the members of the applied linguistics community express the necessity of the proposition using a necessity modal verb with a high level of assertion, they often use those in passive form for indirectness and objectivity, which seems a commonly shared practice in the applied linguistics community.

Considering that 'lexico-modal' *have to* outnumbers its 'closest semantic rivals' *must* (Collins, 2009, p. 59)[7], it is interesting to observe that the necessity booster *must* was employed more frequently, with a raw frequency of 160, than was the other necessity marker *have to,* with a raw frequency of 29 in the present corpus. Whereas *must* expresses with more subjectivity (Leech, 1987) and intensity (Sweetser, 1990), *have to* has been considered to be objective or neutral (Leech, 1987; Palmer, 1990). Distinguished from other discourse communities, this demonstrates a characteristic of the English academic discourse community, in which members of English applied linguistics community prefer to express what needs to be done with the author's voice and authority in a more explicit way. In the same vein, the 'quasi-modal' verb

[7] According to Collins (2009), *have to* was found two times more (3,940 vs. 1,690) than *must* in all three components of the corpora comprising British and Australian English components of *International Corpus of English*, and assorted corpora of American English). The different frequencies between *have to* and *must* were the biggest, more than three times (1,385 vs. 402) in the corpora of American English (i.e., the spoken component of the Santa Barbara Corpus and the written component of the Freiburg-Brown Corpus of Written American English).

need to indicating "a need that is intrinsic to the subject-referent, an 'internal compulsion' (Nokkonen, 2006, p. 62) was found more frequently (17.56%) than was *have to*, which suggests more objectivity (4.71%).

In addition to co-occurrences of hedges, it is not uncommon for members of the English-speaking community to use the booster modal verbs with the hedge modal verbs together. As previously mentioned, modal verbs are not allowed grammatically to occur with other modal verbs in the English language, but, although the co-occurrence of modal verbs and quasi-modal verbs is grammatically accepted (e.g., *might have to*, *would need to*), there were only few instances of this combination (i.e., 1 instance of *would have to*, 4 of *may have to*, none of *might have to*) occurring in the present corpus of research articles in English applied linguistics. Interestingly, even though it is common to use co-occurrences of modal verbs and quasi-modal verbs in the English-speaking community, they rarely occur together in research articles in English. In other words, the co-occurrence of modal expressions is not a preferred way for members of the English applied linguistics community to express themselves in research articles.

5.2.3 Attitude Markers

Attitude markers are linguistic devices used to express writer's affective position and assessment toward the proposition. In the corpus of research articles of English applied linguistics, attitude markers were the third most frequent stance marker, with 20.724% of the total stance markers. The statistical analysis showed a significant difference ($z = 2.110$) in the use of attitude markers between the two corpora, but, in contrast to boosters, the Korean corpus was associated with more attitude markers than was the English corpus.

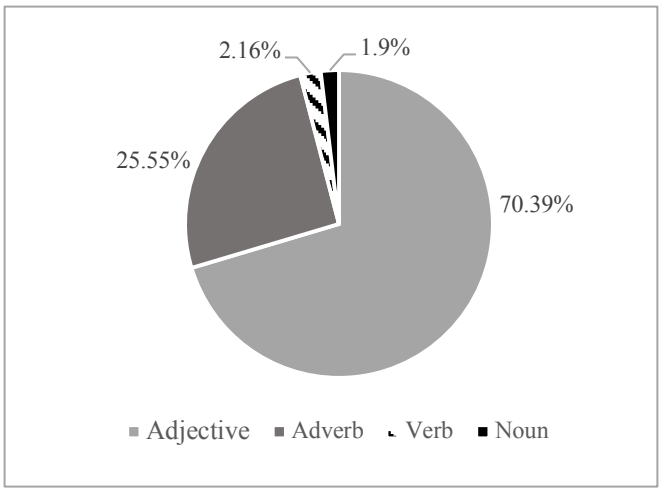

Figure 5.5. Frequencies of grammatical categories of attitude markers in the English corpus

Figure 5.5 demonstrates how much each grammatical category was selected in attitude markers in the corpus of English applied linguistics. Interestingly, the two most commonly used grammatical categories (i.e., adjective and adverb) were found widely, with 95.94% (70.39% and 25.55%, respectively) of attitude markers in the English data. Apparently, members of the English applied linguistics community employed adjective category with the highest frequency, 70.30% of the total attitude markers, to present authors' affective position or evaluation toward the proposition. It is an expected result, since expressing subjective position and assessment are associated with description and characterization of their own work or other community members' work, which is what adjectives do in a sentence. It is also unsurprising that the second most commonly occurring grammar category was adverbs, with 25.55% of the entire attitude markers, because they help adjectives by providing additional features or qualities related to those works.

Table 5.5. Types of functions of attitude markers in the corpus of English applied linguistics

Functions		Frequency		Examples
Evaluation	Positive	1,357 (57.40%)	1,786 (75.55%)	*important*, *appropriat*e
	Negative	263 (11.13%)		*limited*, *difficult*, *insufficient*
	Neutral	166 (07.02%)		*unique*, *typical*, *representative*
Affect		428 (18.10%)		*even*, *interesting*, *surprising*
Position		150 (06.35%)		*expected*, *agree*, *unexpected*
Total		2,364 (100.00%)		

Table 5.5 summarizes types of functions of attitude markers in the corpus of English data. The evaluation category indicates linguistics devices expressing authors' assessment of their own work and other community members' work to establish their argument. With over 75% of attitude markers, the evaluation category was employed over four times and ten times more than the respective frequencies of the affect and position categories. In the evaluation category, positive evaluation, with 57.40% of the total attitude markers, is more common than the negative and neutral categories (11.13% and 7.02%). Positive evaluation is the linguistic realization of authors placing a positive value on the work, with its immutable value of importance and Positive evaluation is the linguistic realization of authors placing a positive value on the work meaningfulness (e.g., *important*, *appropriate*, *essential*). Similarly, negative evaluation refers to authors' negative assessment of the work, with the unfavorable value remaining consistent (e.g., *limited*, *difficult*, *insufficient*). However, the value of the neutral evaluation is subject to change depending on the context in which the work is situated, and it includes such expressions as *unique*, *typical* and *close*. Example 5.6 below describes the use of the evaluation category of attitude markers occurring in research articles of applied linguistics.

Example 5.6: *appropriate*, *limited* & *unique*

(1) *Consequently, it does appear* ***appropriate*** *to describe these L2 narratives as being characterized by overexplicit reference.* (EL: 22)

(2) *This study is also **limited** by the lack of robust differences between the two computational models*. (EL: 29)

(3) *This poses **unique** challenges for teacher educators as, more often than not, teachers' maturing capabilities are expressed as intensely emotional highs and lows that emerge from being asked to perform as self-directed teachers before having the necessary competence to do so*. (EL: 35)

In Sentence (1) and (2), the evaluation attitude markers *appropriate* and *limited* were used to express the author's affirmative assessment of the result and the author's attitude of acknowledging the insufficiency of the study, respectively. The evaluation marker *unique* in Sentence (3) indicates a descriptive judgement that is neutral, which is situation-oriented because being unique can mean being different from others in either a positive or a negative way.

A closer look at the affect category revealed that there exists a big difference in the frequencies of affect attitude markers in the English and Korean corpora. Affect category is the expression of authors' feeling and emotions toward what is said. In the English data, it was the second most frequently used category (18.1%), but Korean affect markers occurred (8.01%) less than all three evaluation sub-categories. Interestingly, over half (55.84%) of the affect category was used for the adverb *even,* which indicates authors' surprise or unexpectedness in a more indirect way. On the other hand, explicit affective expressions such as *interesting*, *surprising* and *unfortunately* are more varied and diverse (i.e., 19 linguistic items). Position category was the least common function (6.35%), and it concerns the way authors position themselves and view works and arguments (e.g., *expect*, *agree*, and *prefer*).

Table 5.6. Top 10 frequent attitude markers in the English corpus (per 1,000 words)

Attitude Markers	Frequency		Functions
	Raw	Normalized	
important	295	0.74	Evaluation: Positive
even	239	0.60	Affect
appropriate	127	0.32	Evaluation: Positive
significantly	119	0.30	Evaluation: Positive
effective	88	0.23	Evaluation: Positive
significant	87	0.22	Evaluation: Positive
useful	84	0.21	Evaluation: Positive
expected	81	0.20	Position
limited	81	0.20	Evaluation: Negative
rich	56	0.14	Evaluation: Positive
Total	1,257	3.16	

Accounting for 53.17% of the total attitude markers, the top ten frequent attitude markers in the English corpus are summarized in Table 5.6. The list contains seven positive evaluation expressions, which is not surprising given that the positive evaluation category has the highest frequency of occurrence. Among seven positive markers, three expressions incorporate the value of the significance of the work (i.e., *important*, *significantly* and *significant*), with 21.19% of the total attitude markers. Members of the English applied linguistics community seem to employ those expressions to put the value on their work or others' work, with an emphasis on its importance and usefulness. The other expressions *appropriate*, *effective*, *useful* and *rich* concern the authors' affirmative and positive evaluation of the work or the proposition.

Supporting the previous research (Hyland & Jiang, 2016; Akinci, 2016), *important* and *even* were identified as the two most frequently used attitude markers in the English corpus. They are the most preferred stance markers, with 12.48% and 10.11% of the total attitude markers, respectively, among members of the English applied linguistics community because

they allow authors "not only to express a stance toward something but also to align that stance with the interests of their community." (Hyland & Jiang, 2016, p. 262).

Example 5.7: *even* & *expected*

(1) ***Even*** *at research institutions, professors carry some teaching load, making it surprising that any TAs would express the opinion that teaching was not related to their field and that they therefore did not need pedagogical professional development*. (EL: 12)

(2) *Given the results of previous studies, it is* ***expected*** *that English–German L2 learners will be able to distinguish native from nonnative speech on all three continua and that they will rely on similar speech stream characteristics as have been reported in studies on L2 English speech*. (EL: 25)

For example, the author in Sentence (1) in Example 5.7 expresses an unexpectedness toward the information and indirectly invites the readers who share the unexpectedness and are surprised at this information. The position marker *expected* is also mentioned as a commonly employed stance marker in previous studies (Hyland & Jiang, 2016; Akinci, 2016). Sentence (2) shows the way in which the author positions him/herself with the community members with whom a certain expectation of the result is shared. English Attitude markers, especially affect and position markers, enable the authors not only to carry their attitude toward the proposition but also to indirectly construct the relationship and solidarity with the readers by sharing the same feelings and beliefs.

5.2.4 Self-mention

Self-mention is the least frequently used stance marker by members of the English applied linguistics community, but they use self-mentions significantly more than 12 times as frequently (7.574% and 0.591% in the percentages, respectively) as did members of the Korean

applied linguistics community (See Table 4.2 in chapter 4.2). It is not surprising that more instances of self-mention were employed in English corpus, considering the results from previous cross-cultural and cross-linguistic studies (Abdi, 2009; Mur-Dueñas, 2011; Taki & Jafarpour, 2012; N. I. Lee, 2011). In addition to the cross-cultural and cross-linguistic differences, the disciplinary difference was also discussed in Hyland's works (2001, 2002, 2005b). In the field of hard science, writers tend not to emphasize explicitly the result of the research and the argument they make in the text. In contrast, members of the soft sciences seem to associate the explicit presence of the writer in order to "strongly identify oneself with a particular argument and to gain credit for an individual perspective." (Hyland, 2005b, p.181)

Although members of the Korean applied linguistics community incorporate first-person plural pronouns exclusively, members of the English applied linguistics made less use of the first-person plural than of the first-person singular. The frequency and distribution of each case of self-mention in the English data is illustrated in Figure 5.6.

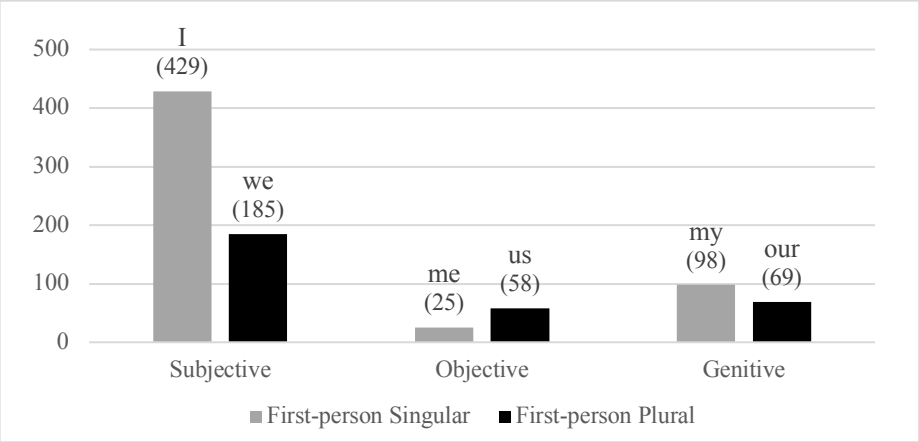

Figure 5.6. Distribution of cases of self-mention in the English corpus

The data in Figure 5.6 show the higher frequency of the first-person singular, with 63.89% of the total self-mentions, and the lower frequency of the first-person plural, with 36.11% of the total self-mentions. In particular, the first-person singular *I* was employed

dominantly for the subject case, accounting for almost 70% (69.87%) of the total subject case. Example 5.8 below illustrates the use of self-mention in the English corpus. Sentence (1) demonstrates how the author claims the credit and authorship for the proposition by positioning him or herself as not only the agent of the present action but also the provider of the previous knowledge. Sentence (2) shows an example in which the writer presents the authorial voice carrying the writer's evaluation on the policy proposed and takes his or her position toward it.

Example 5.8: *I* & *my*

(1) ***I*** *offer two accounts from* ***my*** *own experience as examples*. (EL: 49)

(2) ***I*** *suggest that the proposals for implementation of this policy are inconsistent with the stated objective to enrich individuals' linguistic repertoires and instead are driven by the construction of a version of societal multilingualism that is both unrealistic and detrimental to the needs of Ni-Vanuatu.* (EL: 50)

A grammatical constraint of English also plays an important role in the high frequency of the explicit presence of self-mention, the subject case *I* in particular, in the English data. English word order cannot be scrambled and grammatical constituents cannot be dropped, because the word order assigns syntactic roles to the constituents in English language. Unlike the Korean language, an ellipsis of subjects is not a grammatical option for members of the English discourse community as a strategy to avoid employing *I* as a subject. This structural feature of English seems to promote the frequent use of self-mention in English research articles and to allow writers to construct the authorial identity explicitly in the text.

Considering that all research articles contained in the corpora were written by a single author, the use of first-person plural pronouns seems to involve more than just a reference function in the academic discourse. For the purpose of analyzing the functions of the use of the

first-person plural pronouns, I adopted and modified the classification of the referents of the first-person plural pronouns suggested by C-K. Kim (2009). One of the original categories (i.e., certain groups of people) was adapted to refer to the members of a discipline community, which includes the author him or herself and readers participating in the interaction within the text. According to C-K. Kim (2009), *we* occurred with the highest frequency, 74.79%, referring to "people in general as all human beings," and *we* indicated "certain groups of people of whom the real-world reader could be one," with a frequency of 14.53% (pp. 2094-2095) in media discourse.

Table 5.7. Referents of English first-person plural pronouns in the English corpus

Category	*we*	*us*	*our*	Total
People in general as all human beings	22(11.96%)	2(03.45%)	9(13.04%)	33(10.61%)
Author's own national people	1(00.54%)	0(00.00%)	0(00.00%)	1(00.32%)
Members of a discipline community including authors and readers	161(87.50%)	56(96.55%)	60(86.96%)	277(89.07%)
Total	184(100%)	58(100%)	69(100%)	311(100%)

As the data in Table 5.7 show, in contrast to the results of C-K. Kim (2009), in the present corpus the use of *we* associated with "people in general as all human beings" accounts for only 10.61% of the entire use of *we,* and the dominant use of *we* was found to indicate the 'members of a discipline community including authors and readers' with a proportion of 89.07% of the entire use of *we*. Example 5.9 below demonstrates three types of *we* in the English corpus. Sentence (1) is an example of *we* used to refer to people in general as all human beings, and it does not occur in academic discourse as often as it does in media discourse. Sentence (2) contains a rare instance of *we* in the EL corpus in that the use of *we* indicating those who share

the author's nationality sets a limit on the participation of readers, especially in an international academic journal. Sentence (3) shows how *we* and *our* invite readers as members of their academic community into the text to persuading readers of the validity and significance of the author's claim.

Example 5.9: *we* & *our*

(1) *Although it has been said that **we** are able to learn approximately 30 words per hour by studying a list of vocabulary* (EL: 07)

(2) *In Australia **we** are awash with standards*. (EL: 47)

(3) ***We** should try to understand **our** students' developing philosophies of teaching, and **we** should offer support to them in their development*. (EL: 44)

The difference in frequencies of the use of *we* is attributed to the difference between the two discourse communities. The corpus data used for C-K. Kim (2009) came from two British newspapers.[8] The size of newspaper readership is large and the intended readership includes unspecified individuals, mostly British people. On the other hand, the corpus used for the present study consists of academic writing, especially published research articles from prestigious international journals. The readership of research articles is usually smaller, consisting of members of a discipline community, especially those who are interested in the specific field and share background knowledge of the field. In other words, the majority of the use of *we* was associated with references to the members of their discourse community – for a newspaper, people in the region where the newspaper is published, and for research articles, people interested in the field who possess minimum background knowledge in the field. This inclusive

[8] According to "Circulation of newspapers in the United Kingdom (UK) as of June 2018 in 1,000 copies" (https://www.statista.com/statistics/529060/uk-newspaper-market-by-circulation/), the Daily Telegraph is the ninth-most-circulated daily newspaper in the UK with a circulation of 370,610 copies as of June 2018 and the Guardian had a daily circulation of 138,080 in the UK as of June 2018.

use of *we* not only allows writers to position themselves as a member of a discourse community, but also invites readers as a participants in the interaction within the text. It provides the opportunity for readers to engage actively in the process of constructing knowledge, examining and evaluating propositions, and making arguments. With the use of *we*, readers play an important role, not as observers but as participants in academic writing as an ongoing social interaction.

5.3 Stance Markers in Korean research articles

5.3.1 Hedges

Consistent with the results of the dominant use of hedges in academic writing in the previous studies (Hyland, 2005b; Abdi, 2002; Abdollahzadeh, 2011; Taki & Jafarpour, 2012; Sanjaya, 2013; Akinci, 2016), and consistent with the English data, Korean hedge devices were found with the highest frequency, 43.924% of the entire use of stance markers, in the Korean applied linguistics data. As mentioned in chapter 2.4.4, most research on metadiscourse markers of academic writing in Korean has focused on hedging expressions (Sin, 2006; Y. Shin, 2011; J. Lee, 2012). That tendency is not surprising, given its popularity and its high frequency of use in the academic discourse community, especially in the applied linguistics community.

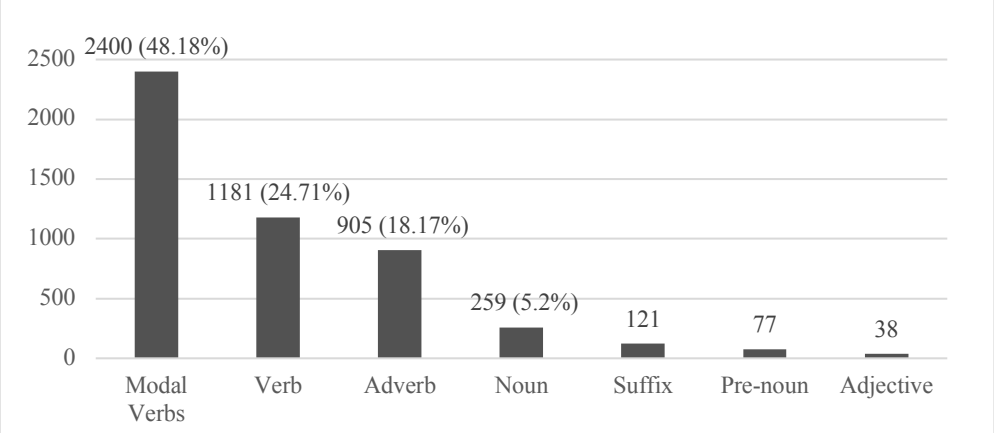

Figure 5.7. Frequencies of grammatical categories of hedges in the Korean corpus

Figure 5.7 illustrates the frequencies of grammatical categories of hedges in the corpus of Korean applied linguistics. The two most frequently employed grammatical categories (i.e., modal verbs and verbs) occurred dominantly, with 72.89% of the hedges. The term 'modal verbs' is used in the present study to refer to modal auxiliaries of multiple-word clusters in Korean (e.g., *-ul/l swu iss* 'possible, might' and *-ul/ l kes* 'would'), which is a prefabricated sequence, stored and retrieved as a whole in a mental lexicon. Verbs such as *pota* 'see,' *hata* 'do,' *nathanata* 'appear' and *uymihata* 'mean' were included in the verb category. Unlike the results of the previous study (J. Lee, 2012), in which the adverb category occurred less than 10% (8.48%), the present Korean corpus contains adverb hedge expressions in 18.17% of the total hedges, including *cwulo* 'mostly, mainly,' *sangtaycekulo* 'relatively,' and *cacwu* 'often.' Including the adverb category, the three most frequent grammatical categories account for 90.06% of all hedges.

Table 5.8. Types of functions of hedges in the corpus of Korean applied linguistics

Functions		Frequency	Examples
Possibility		1,937 (38.89%)	*-ul/l swu iss,* 'possible, might', *kanungseng* 'possibility'
Otherness		1,105 (22.18%)	*pota* 'see', *hata* 'do', *nathanata* 'appear'
Approximation		918 (18.43%)	
Non-entirety	434 (8.71%)		*cwulo* 'mostly', *keuy* 'almost, nearly'
Degree	308 (6.19%)		*com te* 'a little more', *enu cengto* 'to some degree', *taso* 'somewhat', *yak* 'about'
Frequency	176 (3.53%)		*cacwu* 'often', *pinpenhakey* 'frequently'
Assumption		821 (16.48%)	*-ul/ l kes* 'would, possible', *keyss* 'would'
Limitation		195 (03.92%)	*sangtaycekulo* 'relatively', *pikyocek* 'relatively', *sayngkakhata* 'think'
Uncertainty		5 (00.10%)	*pwulmyenghwakhata* 'uncertain', *pwulpwunmyenghata* 'unclear'
Total		4,981 (100.00%)	

The frequencies and proportions of hedge functions in the Korean applied linguistics data are presented in Table 5.8. As with English hedges in the present corpus, the possibility category is also the most frequently used function category in the Korean applied linguistics corpus. Whereas members of the English applied linguistics community adopt various modal verbs (e.g., *may*, *could* and *might*) to express writers' possibility toward the proposition, however, only two possibility expressions (i.e., *-ul/l swu iss* 'possible, might' and *kanungseng* 'possibility') were found in the Korean corpus. The second most employed category is otherness, which reveals one of the most noticeable differences between hedges in English versus Korean academic discourse. Whereas otherness in the English corpus appeared in 5.76% of the total hedges, otherness occurred in 22.18% of the total hedges in the Korean corpus. The qualitative analysis reveals that most of the verbs found in the Korean data incorporate this otherness function, which delivers the author's own argument from the position of a third person. Unlike the English corpus, in which the approximation category was the second most used hedging device, approximation was employed less frequently than the otherness category in the Korean corpus. In the approximation category of both corpora, three sub-categories were used at a fairly similar rate but with different orders of frequency (i.e., EL: non-entirety (1.14) > frequency (1.08) > degree (0.77) in normalized frequencies per 1,000 words); KL: non-entirety (2.04) > degree (1.48) > frequency (0.83) in normalized frequencies per 1,000 words). The assumption category follows the approximation category in frequency, and it refers to expressions that indicate authors' hypothesized arguments. The assumption category contained not only modal expressions such as *-ul/ l kes* 'would, possible' and *keyss* 'would,' but also nouns such as *kyenghyang* 'tendency' and *yangsang* 'aspect' employed with a noun-modifying form. The limitation category refers to such expressions of authors' acknowledgement to a certain degree as *sangtaycekulo* 'relatively' and

pikyocek ‘relatively.’ Uncertainty expressions are the least frequently used category in the Korean corpus as well as in the English corpus. It seems that the uncertainty category was not favored by members of both academic communities, because it indicates an author’s uncertainty toward what is being said in a rather direct way. In other words, they seem to share a practice of preferring to express themselves in a more indirect way rather than in a direct way.

The following table summarizes the top ten most frequently employed hedge expressions in the Korean corpus. Considering that the total number of hedges in the English corpus was 23.49 per 1,000 words in a normalized frequency, the results demonstrate a high level of dependence on these ten hedge expressions, which account for 74.8% of the total hedges.

Table 5.9. Top 10 frequent hedges in the Korean corpus (per 1,000 words)

Hedges	Frequency		Functions
	Raw	Normalized	
-ul/l swu iss ‘possible, might’	1,897	8.94	Possibility
-ul/ l kes ‘would’	495	2.33	Assumption
pota ‘see’	370	1.74	Otherness
hada ‘do’	229	1.08	Otherness
cwulo ‘mostly, mainly’	169	0.80	Approximation: Non-entirety
*nathanat*a ‘appear’	145	0.68	Otherness
keyss ‘would’	111	0.52	Assumption
sangtaycekulo ‘relatively’	106	0.50	Limitation
uymihata ‘mean’	106	0.50	Otherness
cacwu ‘often’	98	0.46	Approximation: Frequency
Total	3726	17.55	

The most frequently occurring hedging device was the modal expression *-ul/l swu iss* ‘possible, might,’ whose function is to decrease the writer’s epistemic commitment toward what is being said by adding the meaning of possibility and bringing indirectness into the proposition. Korean applied linguists lean heavily on *-ul/l swu iss* ‘it is possible, might,’ with a raw frequency of 1,897 not only in the possible category (97.93%) but also among all hedges (38.08%). The

modal verb *-ul/l swu iss* has attracted considerable attention from members of Korean Applied Linguistics as a formulaic expression, due to its formulaicness and high frequency of occurrence, especially in academic writing (Y. Lee, 2014; Nam, 2013; Choi, Song & Nam, 2010). According to Bae, J., Choi, J., & Kim, M. (2013), *-ul/l swu iss* occurred 8,243 times per 1,000,000 words in academic writing, whereas it occurred 2,675 times per 1,000,000 words in everyday conversation (cited in Y. Lee, 2014, p. 205). Choi, Song & Nam (2010) also examined the frequency of *-ul/l swu iss* and found that it was ranked the highest (250.4 times per 100,000 words) among the co-occurring four-word expressions in academic writing. This high frequency of *-ul/l swu iss* and its popularity in the academic discourse community seems to be related to an inextricable connection between its two modal functions, resulting in changes in the pragmatic function in academic writing.

The modal functions of *-ul/l swu iss* are divided broadly into two major types: ability and permission (deontic modality) and possibility (epistemic modality) (J-S. Yeom, 1999, 2002; Ahn, 2004). As Ahn (2004) pointed out, it is almost impossible to separate the 'ability' and 'permission' meanings of *-ul/l swu iss* from the 'possibility' meaning of it, because they overlap heavily in meaning, and it is hard to distinguish the meanings in most cases. Example 5.10 demonstrates that *-ul/l swu iss* expresses dynamic modality (i.e., ability to increase learners' confidence), but the epistemic modality (i.e. possibility to increase learners' confidence) is also presented. This inextricable link between dynamic and epistemic modality has broadened its usage in academic writing, and has become a pragmatic marker for avoiding a strong statement, acquiring indirectness and politeness. This ambiguity is found in other languages (e.g., English and Indonesian; Sanjaya, 2013) as well as in Korean. In this respect, it has been argued that *-ul/l*

swu iss should be introduced to Korean language learners as a discourse marker for 'not a strong statement,' from a pedagogical perspective (J-N. Kim, 2008; Y. Lee, 2014).

Example 5.10: *-ul/l swu iss* 'it is possible, might,'

(1) 연구 논문과 연구 발표는 대학 이상의 학술적 활동의 정점이라 **할 수 있**으며 자신의 연구 내용 및 성과를 학술담화공동체에 발표할 때 일정한 격식과 정형화되고 관습화된 양식이 있다는 점에서 그리고 그것이 비교적 엄격하고 일관되게 지켜진다는 점에서 학술 담화 교육 내용에 포함되어야 할 필수 사항이라 **할 수 있**다.
*yenkwu nonmwunkwa yenkwu palphyonun tayhak isanguy hakswulcek hwaltonguy cengcemila ha**l swu iss**umye casinuy yenkwu nayyong mich sengkwalul hakswultamhwakongtongcheyey palphyohal ttay ilcenghan kyeksikkwa cenghyenghwatoyko kwansuphwatoyn yangsiki isstanun cemeyse kuliko kukesi pikyocek emkyekhako ilkwantoykey cikhyecintanun cemeyse hakswul tamhwa kyoyuk nayyongey phohamtoyeya hal philswu sahangila ha**l swu issta**.*
'(I/We) **could** say that research papers and presentations are the culmination of academic activities in higher education. (I/We) **could** say that they are an essential part to be included in academic discourse education in the sense that they have certain formalities and formalized and customary styles when presenting research findings and achievements to the academic discourse community, and that they are kept relatively strict and consistent.' (KL: 02)

(2) 학습자들이 자연스러운 상황에서 프랑스어로 말**할 수 있**는 기회를 갖고 말하기의 자신감을 높**일 수 있**다.
*haksupcatuli cayensulewun sanghwangeyse phulangsuelo malha**l swu iss**nun kihoylul kacko malhakiuy casinkamul nophi**l swu issta**.*
'Learners have the opportunity to speak French in natural situations and **can** increase their confidence with speaking.' (KL: 15)

A modal verb *-ul/l kes* 'would' was the second most popular hedge device, with 9.94% of the total hedges, and was included in the assumption category. It was followed by another assumption device, *keyss* 'would,' in frequency, but a considerable difference of 1.81 per 1,000 words existed between the two items. The reason for the high degree of reliance on *-ul/l kes* 'would' might be the difference in usage between the two expressions. They are both employed to express writers'/speakers' assumptions, but their difference in usage has been discussed

extensively (e.g., degree of certainty[9], a nature of the information[10], sharedness[11], etc.). However, the difference in meaning between the two expressions has never been clearly identified and is still ongoing. In the context of discussions and attempts to differentiate the two modal expressions, the degree of context-dependency of the two modal expressions will be taken into consideration in analysis of research articles in the present study. According to J-I. Yeom (2005), *-ul/l kes* is less context-dependent, providing a general assumption without much limitation, but *keyss* has more limitations with a context-independency. The structure of *-ul/l kes* can be used to express an assumption, from a simple guess to a logical assumption that the proposition is true. In the *keyss* structure, on the other hand, the only logical conclusion should be provided within the context, but without a guarantee of being true. As observed in other stance markers (e.g., *should*), the flexibility and broad scope of *-ul/l kes* allows for a high number of occurrences of *-ul/l kes* versus *keyss*. More importantly, the pragmatic feature of the structure of *-ul/l kes,* incorporating the author's belief that his or her assumption is true, promotes its use in the Korean academic discourse community, especially in research articles, because authors' faith that their hypothesis could be substantiated by the facts seems to bring objectiveness into the text. In other words, authors' perception toward the proposition plays an important role in deciding between

[9] The degrees of speakers/writers' certainty between *-ul/l kes* and *keyss* has been a controversial issue among Korean linguists. There has been an argument that *keyss* is associated with a higher level of certainty than *-ul/l kes* (K. Lee, 1978, cited in H. Kang, 2010), and the others argue quite the opposite saying that *-ul/l kes* expresses a stronger certainty than *keyss* does because it requires objective grounds (Suh, 1978). Some even argues that a probability of being right or wrong is not involved in the comparison of *-ul/l kes* and *keyss* (N-S. Lee, 1995).

[10] Another difference between *-ul/l kes* and *keyss* discussed was authors' perspective toward the ground which they believe supports their views. Some studies argued that the structure of *-ul/l kes* requires authors' belief for the assumption that the evidence is based on facts. In the *keyss* structure, on the other hand, the assumption is made based on the subjective and personal grounds (Suh, 1978; Ahn, 2004). However, there was a counter-argument that *keyss* could be used to make a logical conclusion with an objective evidence and *-ul/l kes* could incorporate a non-logical prediction without any ground (J-I. Yeom, 2005).

[11] There has been an argument that *-ul/l kes* is used when the authors presume something based on the information that is expected to be new to readers, and *keyss* is employed to seek an engagement with readers when they provide assumptions to be believed with which readers are familiar (Lee & Noh, 2003). According to N-S. Lee, (1995), however, while *-ul/l kes* expresses the speaker's assumption and hypothesis considering the others' opinions, *keyss* is used to convey the speaker's own supposition regardless of what others think.

the two assumption devices *-ul/l kes* and *keyss*, and the feature of research articles in theKorean academic community associated with objectiveness allows for the frequent and extensive use of *-ul/l kes*. Sentences in Example 5.11 illustrate the use of *-ul/l kes* and *keyss.* Due to the academic discourse feature, the difference in meaning and functions was not found in the present corpus, but the different discoursal functions of the two modal markers provides the explanation for the different frequencies of *-ul/l kes* and *keyss.*[12]

Example 5.11: *-ul/l kes* 'would' & *keyss* 'would'

(1) 아마도 이는 실험 참여자의 평균 거주 기간이 3.9 개월이었으며 표준편차는 13.90 이었다는 것과 무관하지 않**을 것**이다.
*amato inun silhem chamyecauy phyengkyun kecwu kikani 3.9 kayweliessumye phyocwunphyenchanun 13.90iesstanun keskwa mwukwanhaci anh**ul kes**ita*.
'Perhaps this **would** not **be** irrelevant to the fact that the average residence time of the participants was 3.9 months and the standard deviation was 13.90.' (KL: 34)

(2) 이러한 언어처리에 대한 연구는 인간의 가장 큰 특징인 언어의 사용에 대한 연구로서 복잡한 인간의 인지구조를 이해하는 데 아주 중요한 연구 분야 중의 하나라 하**겠**다.
*ilehan enecheliey tayhan yenkwunun inkanuy kacang khun thukcingin eneuy sayongey tayhan yenkwulose pokcaphan inkanuy incikwucolul ihayhanun tey acwu cwungyohan yenkwu pwunya cwunguy hanala ha**keyss**ta*.
'Such study of language processing **would be** one of the most important research fields for understanding complex human cognitive structures as a study of the use of language, which is the greatest human characteristic.' (KL: 33)

[12] Since the data used for the present study consists of research articles which requires logical reasoning, it was impossible to find examples demonstrating the reasoning of the structure of *keyss* without believing that it is true. The examples adopted from J-I. Yeom (2005) will be presented here to help for understanding the innate linguistic nature of *-ul/l kes* and *keyss*. Sentence (1) shows how *keyss* is used to express the speaker's logical assumption based on the current situation without assuming that it is true. In Sentence (2), however, *-ul/l kes* sounds awkward unless the speaker is for sure with the evidence that being late is inevitable.
Example 5.12: *keyss* & *-ul/l kes*
(1) 늦겠다. 서둘러라.
nuckeyssta. setwullela.
(you/we) will be late. Hurry up.
(2) ??늦을 것이다. 서둘러라.
nucul kesita. setwullela.
(you/we) will be late. Hurry up.

(3) 같은 숙달도를 가진 학습자더라도 일본인 학습자들은 모국어의 영향을 받아 본 연구의 결과와 다른 결과를 가져**올 수 있을 것으로 예상할 수 있다**.
*kathun swuktaltolul kacin haksupcatelato ilponin haksupcatulun mokwukeuy yenghyangul pata pon yenkwuuy kyelkwawa talun kyelkwalul kacyeo**l swu issul kesulo yeysanghal swu issta***.
'Even for students with the same proficiency, **it would be expected** that Japanese learners influenced by their native language have different outcomes from this study.' (KL: 33)

Another possible explanation for the high occurrence of *-ul/l kes* can be found in the use of collocation. While *keyss* is usually placed at the end of the sentence as a sentence ender, *-ul/l kes* frequently appears before other sentence enders as a complementizer. Sentence (3) in Example 5.11 demonstrates the ways incorporates other verbs, such as *yeysanghata* 'expect,' *yeychuktoyta* 'be predicted,' *chwuchuktoyta* 'be supposed' and *kitaytoyta* 'be expected.' Despite the fact that *keyss* could be used in a complement structure, a strong lexical cohesion between *-ul/l kes* and a complement structure allows for the relatively common use of *-ul/l kes* as a complementizer versus *keyss*.

In addition to the complement clause, *-ul/l kes* also showed the strong lexical cohesion in co-occurrence with *-ul/l swu iss*. In the present corpus, the co-occurrence of *-ul/l swu iss* and *-ul/l kes* occurred 122 times, whereas *keyss* was found 33 times with *-ul/l swu iss*. Although *keyss* was more frequently incorporated with the indirect quotation *-ta/la*(*ko) hata* than with *-ul/l kes* (22 instances and 1 instance, relatively), it is not surprising that *-ul/l kes* was more commonly used in the corpus of research articles, given its much broader compatibility with other grammar structures.

The high frequency of the otherness category is one of the salient features of Korean hedges. Unlike the English data, which uses only one verb *indicate* in both active and passive constructions, in addition, the Korean corpus contains more diverse items of the otherness category, such as *pota* 'see,' *hata* 'do,' *nathanata* 'appear' and *uymihata* 'mean.' The structure

incorporating *pota* ‘see’ and *hata* ‘do’ with quotative particles *tako* and/or *(i)lako* is an indirect quotation. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, they usually incorporated the possibility hedge expression *-ul/l swu iss* with 79.47% of all occurrences of *pota* and *hata*. The sentences in Example 5.13 demonstrate how the author expresses their arguments by positioning him or herself as a third person with an ‘objective’ stance, employing *pota* ‘see’ and *hata* ‘do,’ respectively.

Example 5.13: Indirect quotation with *pota* ‘see’ & *hata* ‘do’

(1) 고급 수준의 한국어 쓰기 교육에서 내용 지식과 관련하여 본질적으로 다룰 수 있는 것은 주로 지식통합 지식과 관련된 것이어야 한**다고 본다**.
*kokup swucwunuy hankwuke ssuki kyoyukeyse nayyong cisikkwa kwanlyenhaye poncilcekulo talwul swu issnun kesun cwulo cisikthonghap cisikkwa kwanlyentoyn kesieya han**tako ponta***.
‘In advanced level Korean handwriting education, (**I see/think that**) what can essentially be handled in relation to content knowledge should be related mainly to knowledge-integration knowledge.’ (KL: 40)

(2) 이는 구어에서 발화를 길게 늘이는 것보다는 합리적이고 경제적이게 표현하고자 하는 화자의 의도가 반영된 결과**라고 할 수 있다**.
*inun kwueeyse palhwalul kilkey nulinun kespotanun haplicekiko kyengceycekikey phyohyenhakoca hanun hwacauy uytoka panyengtoyn kyelkwa**lako hal swu issta***.
‘(**I/we can say**) this is a reflected result of the speaker’s intention to express reasonably and economically rather than prolonging speech in spoken language.’ (KL: 10)

The indirect quotation has been discussed as one of the ways of bringing the objective perspective into the text (Shim, 2005; Sin, 2006; Y. Shin, 2011; Kim & Bae, 2017a, 2017b). Interestingly, an East Asian culture of seeing oneself “through the eyes of others” has received support from experiments by psychologists (Kim et al., 2014; Cohen & Gunz, 2002). Providing empirical results, Kim and his colleagues claimed that “taking a third-person perspective in self-perception may serve important social functions in Asian cultures, where one’s achievements and morality in the eyes of relevant others is a major determinant of one’s self-worth.” (Kim et al., 2014, p. 45) The East Asian cultural tendency toward the perception of oneself and

incorporation of others' perspectives seems to influence one's linguistic choices. Employing the indirect quotation as a hedge device, the members of the East Asian cultural community often pretend to be the messenger delivering an argument from an outsiders' perspective, but what they actually do is to express their own arguments in an indirect and implicit way.

One of most distinctive features of Korean stance markers can be found in co-occurrences of hedges with other hedges or boosters, especially modal verbs. That is also a significant difference in the use of stance markers between the English and Korean languages. Interestingly, it is not difficult to find two or even three stance markers in Korean occurring together. For instance, a hedge expression is often used with another hedging device, or with two or more hedge items, and a booster can often incorporate a hedge expression[13]. Example 5.14 illustrates how hedges can incorporate another hedge or even multiple hedges. Sentence (1) is an example of the most frequent co-occurrence of two hedges, with a raw frequency of 122 – the combination of *-ul/l swu iss* 'possible, might' and *-ul/ l kes* 'would.' The possibility modal expression *-ul/l swu iss* was employed to decrease the writer's epistemic commitment toward what is being said by adding the meaning of possibility and bringing indirectness into the proposition. By attaching the assumption modal expression *-ul/ l kes* to the proposition, furthermore, the writer's epistemic commitment decreases even more. Sentence (2) demonstrates the way three hedge devices (i.e., indirect quotation, *ul/l swu iss* and *-ul/ l kes*) are combined together. The co-occurrence of *-ul/l swu iss* and *-ul/ l kes* allows the author to withhold commitment toward the argument and to provide the reader with a space in which to participate in the process of argument-making. By quoting his or her own argument, furthermore, the author mitigates the strength of the argument presented.

[13] Incorporations of boosters in the co-occurrence of stance markers will be discussed in the following chapter 5.3.2.

Example 5.14: Co-occurrences of hedges

(1) 이중 조동사 경우는 한국어에서 그대로 차용할 수 없으며, 한국어에서는 이를 대용하는 다양한 양태 표현이 여기에 포함**될 수 있을 것**이다.
*icwung cotongsa kyengwunun hankwukeeyse kutaylo chayonghal swu epsumye, hankwukeeysenun ilul tayyonghanun tayanghan yangthay phyohyeni yekiey phohamtoyl **swu issul kes**ita.*
'In the case of the double auxiliary clause, it cannot be borrowed in Korean, and various expressions that substitute for it **could** be included in Korean.' (KL: 32)

(2) 지시어 기능의 발달적 양상은 담화 기능에 놓여 있다**고 할 수 있을 것이다**.
*cisie kinunguy paltalcek yangsangun tamhwa kinungey nohye issta**ko hal swu issul kesita**.*
'The developmental aspect of the function of demonstratives could be said to lie in the discourse function.' (KL: 04)

5.3.2 Boosters

Boosters were identified as the second most commonly used stance marker, accounting for 28.721% of the entire stance markers in the Korean corpus of research papers in applied linguistics. The Korean corpus contains a total of 3,257 booster devices, with 1,177 (36.14%) being adverbs, 800 (24.56%) modal verbs, 753 (23.12%) verbs, 352 (10.81%) nouns, 147 (4.51%) adjectives and 28 (0.86%) particles. The graphical presentation of frequencies of grammatical categories of boosters in the Korean corpus is illustrated in the following figure.

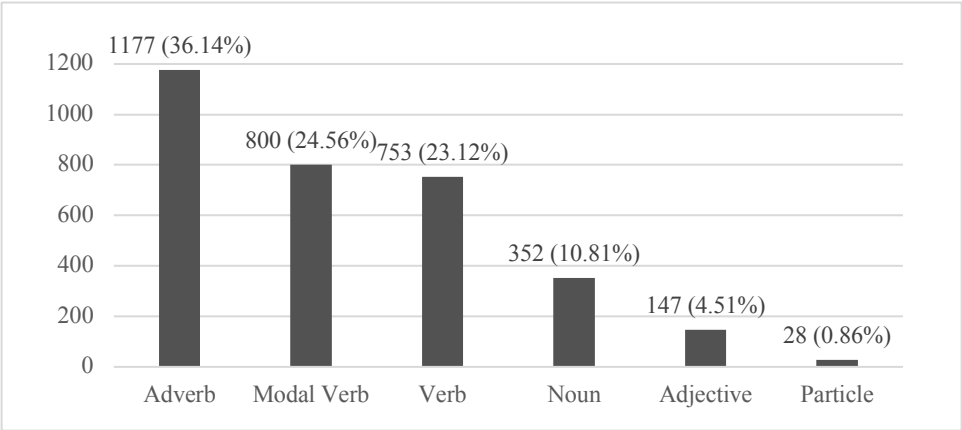

Figure 5.8. Frequencies of grammatical categories of boosters in the Korean corpus

English boosters were associated with verbs most dominantly; however, the most prevalent grammatical category was adverbs, with 36.14% of the entire boosters in the Korean data. Adverb boosters were more diverse in Korean (44 items) than in English (26 items). Over 80% (82.16%) of adverbs were used to emphasize what is said, and the rest were used to express authors' certainty of what is believed. Modal verbs were employed second most frequently, 24.56%, and included only two modal verbs (i.e., *e/aya hata* 'should, must' and *-n/un kesita* 'that is, thing is'). Due to their high frequency and dependency, modal verbs were found to be the second most frequent stance markers, followed by verbs with 23.12% of boosters in the Korean data. In 64.35% of the verb category, they were associated with verification of the proposition or argument, and 34.26% of Korean verbs were incorporated with authors' definite stance toward their proposition or argument. Whereas nouns were rare in the corpus of English applied linguistics, a considerable number of nouns were identified, 10.81% of boosters in the Korean corpus.

Table 5.10. Types of functions of boosters in the corpus of Korean applied linguistics

Functions	Frequency	Examples
Emphasis	1,252 (38.44%)	*thukhi* 'especially', *n/un kesita* 'that is, thing is', *maywu* 'very'
Certainty	790 (24.26%)	*alta* 'know', *myengsicek* 'explicit', *sasil* 'fact'
Necessity	716 (21.98%)	*e/aya hata* 'should, must', *philyo* 'necessity'
Verification	499 (15.32%)	*palkhita* 'reveal', *hwakinhata* 'confirm'
Total	3,257 (100.00%)	

As mentioned in chapter 5.2.2, it is interesting how the pattern of functions of boosters in the English and Korean data mirror one another. As Figure 5.9 illustrates, whereas the verification function is the most frequently used booster in English research articles, it is the least frequent function in the use of boosters in Korean research articles. Similarly, the emphasis

category, which was the most common function of boosters in the Korean corpus, was not used as frequently as the other functions of boosters.

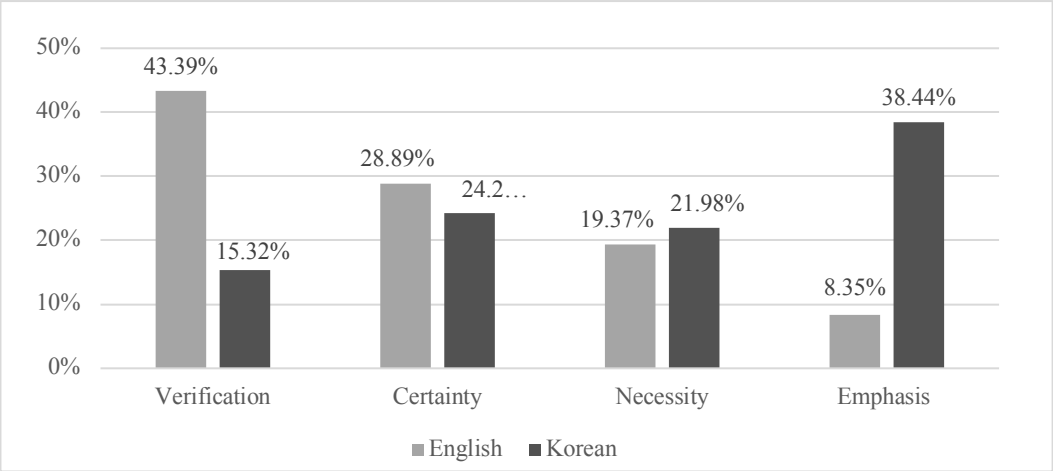

Figure 5.9. Frequencies of functions of boosters between the English and Korean corpora

Members of the academic community of Korean applied linguistics employed the emphasis category of boosters with the highest frequency (38.44%) to emphasize the significance and value of the proposition and argument. As most adverbs (82.16%) were included in the emphasis category of boosters, a considerable proportion (77.24%) of the emphasis category consists of adverbs. Such adverbs as *thukhi* 'especially,' *pota* 'more,' *tewuk* 'more' and *hwelssin* 'much' are included in the emphasis category. Sentence (1) in Example 5.15 below describes how the author emphasizes his/her evaluation of the 'importance' of the argument by using the emphasis booster *thukhi* 'especially.' The certainty category was the second most frequently used booster, 24.26% of boosters in the Korean corpus. It contains various grammatical types, including verbs (e.g., *alta* 'know,' *twutulecita* 'remarkable'), nouns (e.g., *myengsicek* 'explicit,' *sasil* 'fact'), adverbs (e.g., *cenhye* 'never,' *myenghwakhakey* 'clearly') and even a particle (e.g., *pakkey* 'only'). 21.98% of boosters were used for the necessity category, associated with authors' expression that what is said is necessary to achieve common public goals agreed on by members of the academic discourse community. The least

common function of boosters was the verification category, used for authors to report results of analysis based on an examination or investigation. Almost all of the verification category was made up of verbs (e.g., *palkhita* 'reveal,' *hwakinhata* 'confirm,' *tulenata* 'reveal'), with 95.59% of the total, and there was only one other grammatical item, one noun (i.e., *kemcung* 'verification'), which accounted for 4.41% of verification boosters. The verification booster verb *palkhita* 'reveal' is employed in Sentence (2) in Example 5.15 below to show the author's strong belief that the proposition has proven to be true based on the verifiable data (i.e., *phyo 7* 'table 7' and *kyelkwa* 'result').

Example 5.15: *thukhi* 'especially' & *palkhita* 'reveal'

(1) 앞서 살펴본 바와 같이 한국어 숙달도가 높아질수록 전혀 새로운 연결어미만을 배우게 되는 것이 아니라 복합 표현이나 두 연결어미가 합쳐진 형태로 학습하게 되는 경우를 확인할 수 있었는데 이는 기초가 되는 연결어미를 잘 사용하는 것이 **특히** 더 중요하다는 것을 뜻한다.
aphse salphyepon pawa kathi hankwuke swuktaltoka nophacilswulok cenhye saylowun yenkyelemimanul paywukey toynun kesi anila pokhap phyohyenina twu yenkyelemika hapchyecin hyengthaylo haksuphakey toynun kyengwulul hwakinhal swu issessnuntey inun kichoka toynun yenkyelemilul cal sayonghanun kesi ***thukhi*** *te cwungyohatanun kesul ttushanta*.
'As examined earlier, we could confirm that, as Korean proficiency increases, (the learners) learn not only a whole new connective ending, but also a complex expression or a combination of two connective endings. This means that it is **especially** important to use the connective endings well, which are basic.' (KL: 31)

(2) 한국 학생들이 불평도 훨씬 덜 하고 명시적 불평도 못하는 것과는 반대로 아래의 <표 7>을 보면, 요청전략의 직접성(directness)은 한국어편지에서 가장 높고 호주 학생들의 편지에서 가장 낮다는 모순된 결과가 나온다. 영어학습자 집단의 영어 편지에서는 그 정도가 이들 사이의 중간 정도로 **밝혀졌다**.
hankwuk haksayngtuli pwulphyengto hwelssin tel hako myengsicek pwulphyengto moshanun keskwanun pantaylo alayuy <phyo 7>ul pomyen, yochengcenlyakuy cikcepseng(directness)un hankwukephyencieyse kacang nophko hocwu haksayngtuluy phyencieyse kacang nactanun moswuntoyn kyelkwaka naonta. yengehaksupca ciptanuy yenge phyencieysenun ku cengtoka itul saiuy cwungkan cengtolo ***palkhyecyessta***.
'Contrary to Korean students' lower level of complaints and lack of explicit complaints, as seen in Table 7 below, the contradictory results **were revealed** that the directness of the requested strategy is highest in Korean letters and lowest in letters from Australian students.

In the English letter written by the group of English learners, the degree was found to be halfway between them.' (KL: 07)

Table 5.11. Top 10 frequent boosters in the Korean corpus (per 1,000 words)

Boosters	Frequency		Functions
	Raw	Normalized	
-e/aya hata 'should, must'	694	2.74	Necessity
thukhi 'especially'	484	1.16	Emphasis
alta 'know'	370	1.12	Certainty
-n/un kesita 'thing is, that is'	228	1.03	Emphasis
maywu 'very'	225	0.92	Emphasis
palkhita 'reveal'	201	0.89	Verification
myengsicek 'explicit'	180	0.58	Certainty
philyo 'necessity'	151	0.55	Necessity
pota 'more'	143	0.52	Emphasis
hwakinhata 'confirm'	120	0.41	Verification
Total	2,796	9.92	

Table 5.11 presents the top ten most frequently employed booster expressions in the Korean corpus. The most favored booster by members of the Korean applied linguistics community was a modal verb *-e/aya hata* 'should, must,' with 17.84% of the entire boosters in the Korean corpus. According to Ahn (2005), *-e/aya hata* 'should, must' has been considered an auxiliary verb of deontic modality concerned with obligation and necessity since H-B. Choi (1937) (cited in Ahn, 2005). It indicates authors' strong belief that what is said should be done to achieve their goal, shared by members of the community.

In the Korean corpus, it was interesting that the passive construction was not incorporated with the necessity modal verb as frequently as in the English corpus. The contrasting result in the use of the passive structure may be related to the syntactic difference between English and Korean. English is a subject-prominent language in which a subject is always required (Li & Thompson, 1976; Sohn, 1980). Korean, however, is a topic-prominent language ('theme-

prominent' in his term; Cf. Sohn, 1980)[14] with a basic Subject-Object-Verb word order, but its order is relatively free. English word order cannot be scrambled, since the order assigns syntactic roles to the words. Word order is considered to be free in Korean, because case particles are decisive in determining the syntactic roles of sentence constituents. More interestingly, although Korean particles play a critical role in assigning the syntactic roles, they can be dropped as long as the deletion does not cause confusion in meaning. In other words, the passive structure is not common in the Korean language because the agent can easily be moved and deleted in a Korean sentence. This syntactic flexibility of Korean is the reason why the passive construction is not commonly used as much as in English.

Included in the list of the top ten most frequent boosters, with 3.56% of the Korean boosters, the noun *philyo* 'necessity' was the second most frequently used necessity booster with the adjective *issta* 'there is.' Instead of employing the passive construction, members of the Korean applied linguistics community often use *philyoka issta* 'it is necessary, should be done' for indirectness, in that it is an indirect way to express that the proposition or argument is necessary to "weigh up the commitment they want to invest in their arguments" (Hyland, 2005b, p. 180). By comparing the same verb, *kolyehata* 'consider,' used in both structures of *-e/aya hata* 'should, must' and *philyoka issta* 'it is necessary, should be done', Example 5.16 demonstrates the difference between *e/aya hata* and *philyoka issta.* Sentence (1) describes how the obligation modal verb *-e/aya hata* presents the author's argument with assurance and commitment. In Sentence (2), *philyoka issta* also carries the author's conviction in the argument, but in a more passive and indirect way. As in English boosters, the strong obligation modal verb *-e/aya hata*

[14] Korean language was classified as both subject-prominent and topic-prominent language in Li and Thompson's work in 1976. However, Sohn (1980) argued and proved that Korean is not a subject-prominent language, but a topic-prominent language ('theme-prominent' in his term) in terms of uncommon use of passivization and double subjects, no dummy subject, no constraints on the topic. For further analysis, please refer to Sohn (1980).

was the most commonly employed booster in the Korean data. Members of both applied linguistics communities showed a tendency to incorporate more indirect ways of expressing their assertive voice with a high level of commitment toward their argument for pursuing the common goals of their academic discourse communities.

Example 5.16: *-e/aya hata* 'should, must' & *philyoka issta* 'it is necessary, should be done'

(1) 그런데 이러한 어휘나 표현, 그리고 기타 정보의 배분은 무작위로 이루어져서는 안 되며 기준에 따라 어떤 정보를 어떤 부분에 배치할 것인지를 **고려해야 한다**.
kulentey ilehan ehwina phyohyen, kuliko kitha cengpouy paypwunun mwucakwilo ilwuecyesenun an toymye kicwuney ttala etten cengpolul etten pwupwuney paychihal kesincilul kolyehayya hanta.
'However, the distribution of vocabulary, expressions and other information should not be random, and (we/you) **should consider** what information is placed in which parts, according to the criteria.' (KL: 45)

(2) 교사중심의 협력적 실행연구에서 취약한 점이 실행연구를 위한 문제의 정의, 자료의 수집 및 분석이므로 이를 보완하기 위해 외부전문가를 자문요원으로 참여시키거나 공동연구원으로 참여시키는 방안도 **고려할 필요가 있다**.
kyosacwungsimuy hyeplyekcek silhayngyenkwueyse chwiyakhan cemi silhayngyenkwulul wihan mwunceyuy cenguy, calyouy swucip mich pwunsekimulo ilul powanhaki wihay oypwucenmwunkalul camwunyowenulo chamyesikhikena kongtongyenkwuwenulo chamyesikhinun panganto kolyehal philyoka issta.
'The weak points in teacher-centered collaborative action research are problem definition, data collection and analysis for action study. To supplement this, **consideration should be given** to involving external experts as advisors or co-researchers.' (KL: 24)

Following the emphasis adverb *thukhi* 'especially,' the grammaticalized modal verb *-n/un kesita* turned out to be the second most commonly used emphasis booster and the third most frequent booster among all boosters. It has been discussed as a linguistic device for the emphasis and assertion functions (Nam & Ko, 1985; Ko, 1995; Ahn, 1997; S-Y. Kang, 2004; Jang, 2010). Its characteristic and tendency to occur in a written discourse was also pointed out (Ko, 1995; Jang, 2010). According to Ko (1995), *-n/un kesita* 'thing is, that is' is employed to express a high level of assurance when the author claims the argument explicitly in argumentative writing (cited

in N-R. Park, 2012, p. 256). S-Y. Kang (2004) argued that, among others (e.g., *l moyang* 'look like,' *-ul/ l kes* 'would, possible,' *ki malyen* 'likely' and *-nun pep* 'surely'), *-n/un kesita* carries the speaker's highest certainty toward the proposition, which results in an emphasis on the speaker's confidence toward the argument (pp. 157-160). By examining the use of *-n/un kesita* in a speech corpus, J. Kim, S. Lee and K. Kim (2008) found that it frequently occurred in speech discourse, to emphasize the statement being made, with the purpose of formality and assertiveness (pp. 271-273). The modal verb *-n/un kesita* was commonly employed in the academic discourse community, in which the writer/speaker is required to persuade the reader/audience or impress on the reader/audience the importance and value of their work. In other words, the high frequency of *-n/un kesita* in the present corpus was not surprising given the discoursal function of *-n/un kesita* and the characteristic of the academic discourse community. In the example below, with a great degree of certainty, *-n/un kesita* is employed to emphasizes the author's point of view to establish the argument.

Example 5.17: *-n/un kesita* 'thing is, that is'

(1) 다른 모든 수업과 마찬가지로 성공적인 수업에는 학생들의 의지, 태도, 수업 방식, 수업의 효율성, 교수-학생간 상호 이해, 문화간 이해 등 다양한 변인들이 작용하**는 것이다**.
*talun motun swuepkwa machankacilo sengkongcekin swuepeynun haksayngtuluy uyci, thayto, swuep pangsik, swuepuy hyoyulseng, kyoswu-haksayngkan sangho ihay, mwunhwakan ihay tung tayanghan pyenintuli cakyongha**nun kesita***.
'**The thing is,** like all other classes, successful teaching involves a variety of variables, including student will, attitude, teaching style, teaching effectiveness, teaching-student mutual understanding and intercultural understanding.' (KL: 25)

The most distinctive feature of stance markers in Korean, the co-occurrence of modal verbs, was also associated with boosters. Whereas it is common to find multiple hedge modal verbs occurring together, multiple booster modal verbs are not as common as multiple hedges. Booster modal verbs are more often employed with hedge modal verbs. On one hand, for

example, *-e/aya hanun kesita*, a co-occurrence of boosters (i.e., *-e/aya hata* 'should, must' and *-nun/un kesita* 'thing is'), was found 14 times; on the other hand, *-e/aya hal kesita*, a combination of booster and hedge modal verbs (i.e., *-e/aya hata* 'should, must' and *-ul/ l kesita* 'would, possible'), occurred 73 times. Example 5.18 illustrates the way in which booster modal verbs incorporate with other booster and hedge modal verbs.

Example 5.18: Co-occurrence of hedges; hedges and boosters

(1) 더욱이 논문의 경우는 독자인 담화공동체로부터의 엄정한 평가를 통해 해당 분야의 전문가로서 인정을 받아야 하기 때문에 논문이라는 매체의 담화 구성은 매우 정교해**져야 한다**. 즉 어떻게 배열하고 논리적으로 구성해야 하는지 정밀한 구조화의 수사적 기능을 통해 설득의 효과를 거두**어야 하**는 것이다.
tewuki nonmwunuy kyengwunun tokcain tamhwakongtongcheylopwutheuy emcenghan phyengkalul thonghay haytang pwunyauy cenmwunkalose incengul pataya haki ttaymwuney nonmwunilanun maycheyuy tamhwa kwusengun maywu cengkyohaycyeya hanta. cuk ettehkey payyelhako nonlicekulo kwusenghayya hanunci cengmilhan kwucohwauy swusacek kinungul thonghay seltukuy hyokwalul ketwueya hanun kesita.
'Moreover, the discourse composition of the medium called dissertation **must be** very sophisticated, because the dissertation must be recognized as expert in the relevant field through a rigorous evaluation from the discourse community. In other words, the persuasion **must be** effective through the rhetorical function of a precise structure of how to arrange and construct (ideas) logically.' (KL: 02)

(2) 이러한 부분이 보완되**어야** 할 것이며 나아가 세계영어 교수 방안이나 교재 개발 등 보다 구체적인 교육적 제안을 제공해 줄 수 있는 연구가 수행되**어야** 할 것이다.
ilehan pwupwuni powantoyeya hal kesimye naaka seykyeyyenge kyoswu panganina kyocay kaypal tung pota kwucheycekin kyoyukcek ceyanul ceykonghay cwul swu issnun yenkwuka swuhayngtoyeya hal kesita.
'This part **would need to be** supplemented, and further research **should be** conducted to provide more specific educational suggestions, such as a teaching plan or teaching materials in English.' (KL: 27)

Sentence (1) describes the context in which the combination of boosters appears to indicate the author's argument explicitly with a high degree of certainty and explicitness by employing the necessity modal marker *-e/aya hata* 'should, must' and *-nun/un kesita* 'thing is, that is.' The necessity marker *-e/aya hata* 'should, must' was employed in Sentence (2) to

express the author's belief of the necessity of the argument. By adding the underlined hedge item *-ul/ l kes* 'would, possible' to the proposition, however, the writer mitigates the argument with the degree of confidence, in that the hedging device allows writers to open a discursive space for potential disagreement between writers and readers (Hyland, 2005b, p. 179).

5.3.3 Attitude Markers

Following boosters, attitude markers were the third frequently employed stance marker, with 26.764% of the total stance markers in the corpus of Korean applied linguistics research articles. In both the English and Korean corpora, attitude markers were the third most commonly used, following hedges and boosters. Unlike hedges and boosters indicating the degree of authors' epistemic certainty, attitude markers concern the authors' subjective judgement or emotional reaction to the work or the proposition.

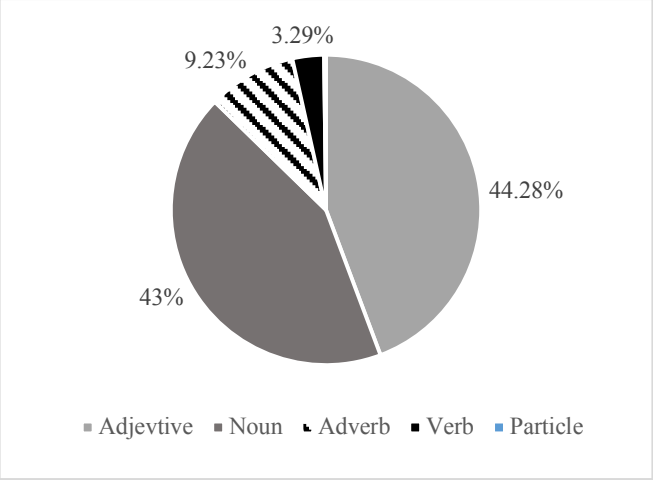

Figure 5.10. Frequencies of grammatical categories of attitude markers in the Korean corpus

Proportions of each grammatical category of attitude markers identified in the Korean corpus are illustrated in Figure 5.10. Unlike the English attitude markers' high dependency on adjectives, attitude markers in the Korean corpus contain adjectives and nouns at similar rates (44.28% and 43%, respectively). The reason for this may be the abundant use of the suffix *-cek* '-ic, -ical,' in 42.38% of all nouns. It is combined with such nouns as *hyokwa* 'effect,' *thukcing*

'characteristic' and *nonli* 'logic,' turning them into other noun forms: *hyokwacek* 'effective,' *thukcingcek* 'characteristic' and *nonlicek* 'logical.' In addition, the common use of co-occurrence of nouns and *-issta* 'be' could provide another possible explanation for the high numbers of nouns in attitude markers in the Korean corpus. Sentence (1) in Example 5.19 demonstrates how the combination of noun *hyokwa* 'effect' and the suffix *-cek* '*-ic*, *-ical*' functions as another noun *hyokwacek* 'effective.' Sentence (2) presents the way the noun *kwansim* 'interest' occurs with *-issta* 'be.'

Example 5.19: *hyokwacek* 'effective' & *kwansim* 'interest'

(1) 둘째로, 그 영향력의 세기에 있어서 언어적 요인보다 덜 하지만 인지적 요인도 한국 대학생들의 사실적 및 추론적 영어 독해에 유의미하고 긍정적인 영향을 미친다는 발견은 영어 독해 능력의 향상을 위해서는 상황에 맞는 적절한 외국어 학습 전략이 매우 **효과적**이라는 것을 시사한다.
twulccaylo, ku yenghyanglyekuy seykiey issese enecek yoinpota tel haciman incicek yointo hankwuk tayhaksayngtuluy sasilcek mich chwuloncek yenge tokhayey yuuymihako kungcengcekin yenghyangul michintanun palkyenun yenge tokhay nunglyekuy hyangsangul wihaysenun sanghwangey macnun cekcelhan oykwuke haksup cenlyaki maywu ***hyokwacek****ilanun kesul sisahanta*.
'Although the strength of the influence is less than that of linguistic factors, the findings that cognitive factors have a significant and positive effect on Korean students' factual and inferential English reading suggest that appropriate foreign language learning strategies are very **effective** at improving English reading skills.' (KL: 18)

(2) 이 연구에서는 외국어로서 영어를 배우는 교실 영어수업상황에서 개인의 의사소통 의지에 영향을 끼치는 물리적, 인문적 환경에 대해서도 **관심이 있다**.
i yenkwueysenun oykwukelose yengelul paywunun kyosil yengeswuepsanghwangeyse kayinuy uysasothong uyciey yenghyangul kkichinun mwullicek, inmwuncek hwankyengey tayhayseto ***kwansim****i issta*.
'This study is also interested in the physical and human environment that influences the individual's willingness to communicate in the English language learning classroom.' (KL: 14)

The use of adverbs of among attitude markers in the Korean data (9.23%) was also not as frequent as in the English data (25.55%). The numbers of linguistic items among attitude markers showed no difference between the English and Korean corpora (27 and 26 linguistic

items, respectively), although the Korean data contain just one more attitude marker than the English data. In other words, Korean attitude markers are more varied and diverse, but the overall frequencies are low. The reason may be the high reliance on the two adverbs *even* and *significantly* (239 and 119 times, respectively).

As summarized in Table 5.12 below, among three functions of attitude markers, the evaluation category was employed most frequently to express authors' assessment of their own work or the work of other community members.

Table 5.12. Types of functions of attitude markers in the corpus of Korean applied linguistics

Functions		Frequency		Examples
Evaluation	Positive	1,777 (58.55%)	2,638 (86.92%)	*cwungyohata* 'important,' *hyokwacek* 'effective'
	Negative	609 (20.07%)		*elyepta* 'difficult,' *pwucokhata* 'insufficient'
	Neutral	252 (08.30%)		*thukcingcek* 'distinctive,' *tayphyocek* 'representative'
Affect		243 (08.01%)		*kwansim* 'attention,' *hungmilopta* 'interesting'
Position		154 (05.07%)		*kitayhata* 'expect,' *senhohata* 'prefer'
Total		3,035 (100.00%)		

Depending on the author's point of view toward what is said, the evaluation category contains three sub-categories (i.e., positive, negative and neutral categories). Like the evaluation category in the English applied linguistics corpus, positive evaluation is the most frequent sub-category (58.62%) and neutral evaluation is the least frequent sub-category (8.24%). However, negative evaluation of attitude markers were used differently between the English and Korean corpora. English negative evaluation was found with a frequency of 11.13%, but negative evaluation markers in Korean occurred almost twice as many items, with a frequency of 20.06%.

Example 5.20 demonstrated how three evaluation markers carry the authors' assessment toward propositions according to their different perspectives.

Example 5.20: *yuuymihata* significant, *elyepta* 'difficult' & *thukcingcek* 'characteristic'

(1) 또한, 문장 유형별로 반응속도에 있어서 차이가 보였으며, 이러한 문장유형별 효과는 통계적으로 **유의미**하게 나타났다.
ttohan, mwuncang yuhyengpyello panungsoktoey issese chaika poyessumye, ilehan mwuncangyuhyengpyel hyokwanun thongkyeycekulo yuuymihakey nathanassta.
'Also, there was a difference in response rate by sentence types, and the effect of each sentence type was statistically **significant**.' (KL: 33)

(2) 전형적인 담화표지어는 문법화와 어휘화를 거쳐 이루어진 것으로 본래의 의미를 잃고 담화내에서 화용론적 기능을 수행하게 되는 것이다. 따라서 더 이상 그 문자적 의미에서 담화표지어 기능을 추론하기 **어렵다**.
cenhyengcekin tamhwaphyocienun mwunpephwawa ehwihwalul kechye ilwuecin kesulo ponlayuy uymilul ilhko tamhwanayeyse hwayongloncek kinungul swuhaynghakey toynun kesita. ttalase te isang ku mwuncacek uymieyse tamhwaphyocie kinungul chwulonhaki ***elyepta****.*
'Typical discourse markers are made through grammaticalization and lexicalization, and they lose their original meanings and perform pragmatic functions within the discourse. Therefore, it is **difficult** to infer the discourse function from its literal meaning any more.' (KL: 08)

(3) 하지만, 연하의 화자가 연상의 상대방과 대화할 때 사용하는 2 인칭 주어로는 친족 어휘의 비율이 가장 높고, 반대로 연상의 화자가 연하의 화자와 대화할 때에는 1 인칭 주어로서 친족 어휘를 사용하거나 2 인칭 주어로 상대방의 이름을 사용하기도 한 것이 **특징적**이었다.
haciman, yenhauy hwacaka yensanguy sangtaypangkwa tayhwahal ttay sayonghanun 2inching cwuelonun chincok ehwiuy piyuli kacang nophko, pantaylo yensanguy hwacaka yenhauy hwacawa tayhwahal ttayeynun 1inching cwuelose chincok ehwilul sayonghakena 2inching cwuelo sangtaypanguy ilumul sayonghakito han kesi ***thukcingcek****iessta.*
'However, it was **characteristic** for kinship terms to be used at the highest rate by a younger speaker to talk to an older person when addressing the second-person subject. By contrast, it was also characteristic that when an older speaker talks to a younger speaker, the kinship term is used as the first-person subject or that the name of the other person is used as the second-person subject.' (KL: 03)

Table 5.13. Top 10 frequent attitude markers in the Korean corpus (per 1,000 words)

Attitude Markers	Frequency		Functions
	Raw	Normalized	
cwungyohata 'important'	231	1.09	Evaluation: Positive
elyepta 'difficult'	218	1.03	Evaluation: Negative
yuuymihata 'significant'	158	0.74	Evaluation: Positive
hyokwacek 'effective'	129	0.61	Evaluation: Positive
cekcelhata 'appropriate'	118	0.56	Evaluation: Positive
kwansim 'interesting, attention'	100	0.47	Affect
cwuyo 'primary'	69	0.33	Evaluation: Positive
pwucokhata 'insufficient'	67	0.32	Evaluation: Negative
thukcingcek 'distinctive'	63	0.30	Evaluation: Neutral
swipkey 'easily'	58	0.27	Evaluation: Positive
Total	1,211	5.72	

In the Korean corpus, interestingly, the more frequent the stance marker, the greater the number of the top most frequent linguistic items. Although the analysis of hedge and booster expressions shows higher dependencies, with 74.8% and 64.66%, respectively, on the ten most frequent markers of the total numbers, the ten most frequent attitude markers account for only 39.90% of the total attitude markers. One explanation for this result might be the variety of linguistic items within attitude markers. Among four stance markers, attitude markers were the third most frequent stance marker but contained the highest variety of linguistic devices (132 items) in the corpus of Korean applied linguistics. This may be because attitude markers are associated with authors' affective position or evaluation toward the proposition. In particular, presenting an author's assessment of their work or of other community members' work required varied and diverse expressions. Another possible explanation is the absence of modal verbs. Unlike hedge and booster expressions, with their high dependency on modal verbs, no modal verb is involved in attitude markers in either corpus.

As mentioned, one of the most noticeable differences identified between English and Korean data was in their different frequencies in the use of the affect category. Members of the English applied linguistic community showed an inclination toward the affect category (18.1% of the total attitude markers) with a heavy reliance on the affect marker *even,* accounting for 55.84 % of the affect category; however, Korean applied linguists employed the affect category with 8.01% of the total of attitude markers. Instead of the affect category, interestingly, members of the Korean applied linguistics community incorporated negative evaluation more often than did members of the English community. Looking closely at the negative evaluation markers (e.g., *elyepta* 'difficult,' *pwucokhata* 'insufficient,' *hankyey* 'limitation,' *himtulta* 'hard' and *ceyhancek* 'limited') employed in contexts at a high frequency, it was revealed that they have a tendency to be employed to express difficulty and limitations of the present study or previous studies. The cause may be the different academic practices required by each community. Two different rhetorical structures of English (Swales, 2004) and Korean (Hong, 2013) are illustrated in Figure 5.11 And Figure 5.12.

Move 1 Establishing a territory (citations required)
via
Topic generalizations of increasing specificity

Move 2 Establishing a niche (citations possible)
via
Step 1A **Indicating a gap**
or
Step 1B Adding to what is known
Step 2 (optional) Presenting positive justification

Move 3 Presenting the Present Work (citation possible)
via
Step 1 (obligatory) Announcing present research descriptively and/or purposively
Step 2 (optional) Presenting RQs or hypotheses
Step 3 (optional) Definitional clarifications

Step 4 (optional) Summarizing methods
Step 5 (PISF**) Announcing principal outcomes
Step 6 (PISF**) Stating the value of the present research
Step 7 (PISF**) Outlining the structure of the paper
*Steps 2-4 are not only optional but less fixed in their order of occurrence than the others
**PISF: Probable in some filed, but unlikely in others

Figure 5.11. A revised CARS model for move 1, 2 and 3 (adapted from Swales, 2004, pp. 230-232)

STEP 1 Establish research area
Process 1 Insisting on the importance of research areas
or
Process 2 Generalization of research topics

STEP 2 Establishing Research Status
Process 1A **Limitations of previous research**
and/or
Process 1B Summary of Outcomes
Process 2 (optional) **Problems in the real environment**
Process 3 (optional) Positive justification

STEP 3 Present your current research
Process 1 (obligatory) Describing the content and purpose of the study
Process 2 (optional*) Clarifying definition
Process 3 (optional*) Presenting a summary of research methods
Process 4 (optional*) Significance of the study
Process 5 (optional*) Description of the structure of the discussion
Process 6 (optional*) Presenting a research question
Process 7 (optional*) **Limited scope of research**
Process 8 (optional*) **Explanation of the limitations of the study**
*Process 2-8 are optional, and their order is not fixed

Figure 5.12. Rhetorical structure of introductions in research articles in Korean (adapted from Hong, 2013, p. 266)

This difference can be attributed to the different rhetorical structures between the English and Korean academic discourse communities. As indicated in Figure 5.11, Swales's CARS (Create-a-Research-Space) model (2004) contains only one category, which is 'Indicating gap' in

bold and highlighted in Figure 5.11, where difficulty or limitations are involved. In Korean research articles, in contrast to the English rhetorical practice, there are four categories (i.e., Limitations of previous research, Problems in the real environment, Limited scope of research and Explanation of the limitations of the study in bold and highlighted in Figure 5.12) expressing difficulty or limitations of the present or previous study. Three of them are considered to be optional, but there are more chances of occurrences of expressions related to difficulty and limitation. Influenced by Swales's (1990) CARS model, Rowley-Jolivet & Carter-Thomas (2005) investigated the rhetorical structures of conference presentation introductions and suggested a new model for the conference presentation, but their model also includes only one category (i.e., Problems/gaps), which possibly incorporates those negative expressions. Samraj's (2008) rhetorical model of master's thesis introductions contains one more category (i.e., Problems in the real environment) plus Swales's (2004) model, but the two categories are still limited compared with the rhetorical structure of Korean research articles. The rhetorical practice of English tends to show the significance of research by describing the present situation (e.g., Indicating gap, gap), on one hand. On the other hand, Korean rhetoric seems to involve more evaluative practices in building the value of research by evaluating limitations of the previous or the present study (e.g., Limitations of previous research, Limited scope of research and Explanation of the limitations of the study) and the present problem (e.g., Problems in the real environment). This cultural and rhetorical difference may result in the different frequencies in the use of negative evaluation markers between the corpora of English and Korean research papers.

5.3.4 Self-mention

As mentioned in Chapter 4, self-mention showed the largest difference in frequencies between the corpus of Korean applied linguistics (0.591%) and the corpus of English applied linguistics (7.574%). As presented in the following Table 5.14, in the English corpus the frequency of the first-person singular pronouns *I*, *me* and *my* was higher (1.38 per 1,000 words) than that of the first-person plural pronouns *we*, *us* and *our* (0.83 per 1,000 words); in the Korean corpus, by contrast, not even a single use of the first-person singular pronoun was found ,and the first-person plural pronoun pronouns *wuli* 'we, our' occurred with a frequency of only 0.32 per 1,000 words.[15]

Table 5.14. Normalized frequency of self-mention (per 1,000 words) in both corpora

Languages	English		Korean	
Types	First-person singular	First-person plural	First-person singular	First-person plural
Subject	1.08	0.49	0	0.11
Objective	0.06	0.15	0	0
Possessive	0.24	0.19	0	0.21
Total	1.38	0.83	0	0.32

One of the possible explanations for the preference for first-person plural pronouns over singular pronouns can be found in the culture of "collectivism" (Sohn, 1983; Hofstede, 2001; Holtgraves, 1997; Matsumoto *et*, *al*., 1998), which is rooted in Confucian culture. The

[15] It should be noted that the use of first-person plural pronouns could be classified as engagement markers, but they were included in stance markers and investigated as self-mention in this study. The rationale behind this decision is that i) as shown Table 5.14, the first-person singular pronoun of Korean was not employed in the Korean corpus for this study, and ii) the first-person plural pronoun was one of the preferable ways for members of the Korean applied linguistics community to address themselves, as well as ellipsis of the subject and the use of non-personal pronouns, which shows the cultural norms and values of the Korean applied linguistics community, The first-person plural pronouns would be labelled as engagement markers, however, if the study examining engagement markers were conducted in the future.

collectivistic culture of Korea was pointed out by C-K. Kim (2009) as a key factor in explaining the use of *wuli* 'we' instead of the second-person pronoun *tangsin* 'you' (p. 2093). In the same vein, the first-person plural pronoun *wuli* 'we' is preferred to the first-person singular pronoun. In contrast to individualism in American culture, Sohn (1983) proposed the notion of collectivism as one of several core traditional Korean values[16] in his pioneering work on communicative and cultural comparisons between American and Korean cultures. Influenced by the collectivistic value — that is, the 'we-feeling' — Korean people prefer to use "we" instead of "my" to avoid creating an 'egocentric' and thus 'arrogant' impression (Sohn, 1983, reprinted in Sohn, 2014, pp. 446-448). In addition, Hofstede (2001) examined different cultural values on the basis of four dimensions (i.e., power distance; uncertainty avoidance; individualism versus collectivism; masculinity versus femininity), and with an Individualism Index (IDV) score of 18, South Korea would be considered as a collectivistic society. An IDV is a measure of the degree to which a society is either collectivist, with a low IDV (South Korea: 18), or individualistic, with a high IDV (United States: 91). In a society with a strong individualistic value, "I"-consciousness is focused, and the word "I" is indispensable to the language. Inversely, in a society in which a strong collectivistic value is reflected in "We"-consciousness, the word "I" is avoided in the language (Hofstede, 2001, p. 227). This collectivistic characteristic seems to result in the preference for the first-person plural pronoun *wuli* in the academic discourse community of Korean. A similar cultural difference has been described in Matsumoto et al. (1998). In their cross-cultural study of the degree of individualism and collectivism, South Korean participants displayed collectivistic tendencies and attitudes in conventions of emotion.

[16] The five dimensions of traditional values of Korean culture was introduced by Sohn (1983): collectivism, hierarchism, indirectness, formalism, and emotionalism, in comparison with the core values of American society (i.e., individualism, egalitarianism, confrontation, pragmatism, and rationalism).

In particular, they scored the highest on Social Identification and Social Sharing of Recognition, which represent how much members of a society have in common and the degree of a sense of sharing in other's accomplishments, respectively. In other words, a sense of inclusiveness and togetherness has prevailed in Korean society, and the members of the Korean-speaking community are likely aware of the collectivistic norm. This might have led to the dominant use of the first-person plural pronoun in addressing themselves in academic writing.

Adopting the classification of the referents of *wuli* suggested by C-K. Kim (2009), Table 5.15 summarizes the functions of the use of *wuli* in the Korean applied linguistics data. As discussed in section 5.2.4, the dominant use of we in the English data was to refer to members of a discipline community including authors and readers; however, the results in the Korean data reveal that the dominant use of *wuli* indicates Korea or Korean people (74.63%).

Table 5.15. Referents of *wuli* in academic discourse in the Korean corpus

Category	Subjective	Genitive	Total
People in general as all human beings	2(08.69%)	0(0%)	2(02.98%)
Korea/Korean people	6(26.09%)	44(100%)	50(74.63%)
Members of a discipline community including authors and readers	15(65.22%)	0(0%)	15(22.39%)
Total	23(100%)	44(100%)	67(100%)

The different uses of the first-person plural pronoun between the English and Korean data could be explained by their different readership groups, representing members of applied linguistics journals published internationally versus locally in Korea. On one hand, the English corpus contains five internationally published journals, which are leading and prestigious ones in the discipline of applied linguistics. On the other hand, the research articles in the Korean corpus come from Korean applied linguistic journals written in Korean and published in Korea. In other

words, the two corpora have different readership sizes and different intended readership groups. An international journal has a much larger and diverse readership than does a locally published journal in a particular region in terms of culture and language. The readership of local-published papers is usually limited to the particular region's academic community. In the English applied linguistics corpus, the dominant use of self-mention indicates the members of the English applied linguistics community, with 89.07% of the entire self-mentions. On the other hand, in the Korean corpus of applied linguistics articles, 74.63% of self-mentions were incorporated to refer to Korea/Koreans, and only 22.39% of self-mentions were used to refer to the members of the Korean applied linguistics community. The reason for the difference may be the different coverage ranges of the two readership groups.

In Figure 5.13 below, the stacked Venn diagram depicts the interdependence and relationship among the three referents of *we* and *wuli* in both the English and Korean applied linguistics corpora. In the English corpus, 'author's own national people' are the subset of 'members of English applied linguistics community,' and they are the subsets of 'people in general as all human.' 'People in general as all human' is also the biggest circle in the Korean corpus, but 'members of Korean applied linguistics community' is a subset of 'Korea/Korean people,' not vise versa. In other words, when *we* refers to members of the English applied linguistics community, it usually concerns people studying applied linguistics all over the world, including the author's own national people. If the Korean single-plural pronoun *wuli* indicates members of the Korean applied linguistics community, however, it means Korean people studying in the Korean culture and language.

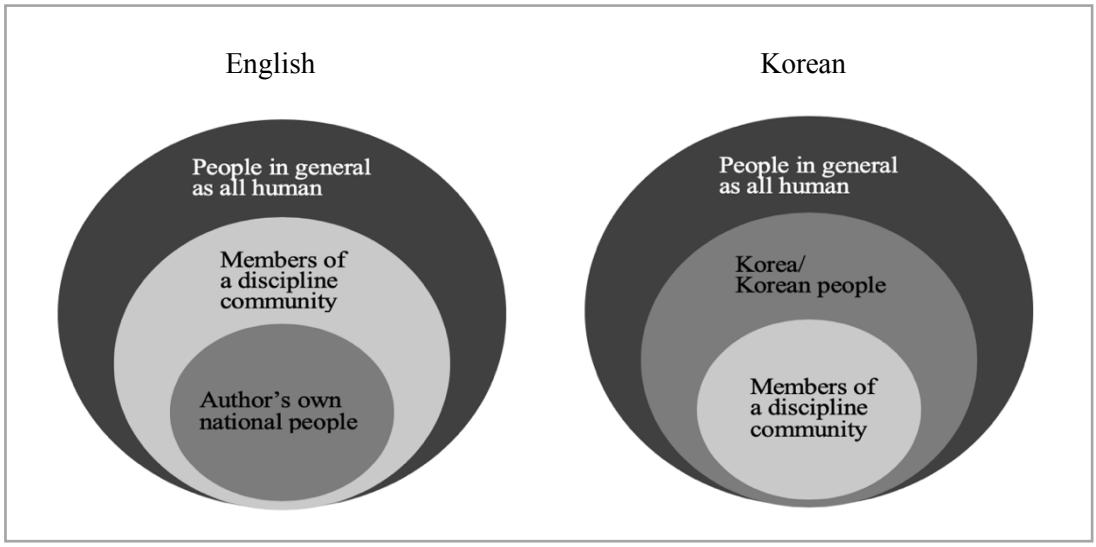

Figure 5.13. Stacked Venn diagrams of the referents of *we* in both corpora

The examples of the Korean first-person plural pronoun *wuli* are illustrated in Example 5.21. Sentence (1) contains the subjective use of *wuli,* in which it indicates a human being. In Sentence (2), the genitive use of *wuli* is described, which was the most frequently used function in the present corpus. It should be noted that the strong lexical cohesion between the words (e.g., *wuli nala* 'our country,' *wuli sahoy* 'our society,' *wulimal* 'our language') could cause a high frequency of collocations. Compared with *hankwuk* or *tayhanminkwuk* 'Korea,' *hankwuk sahoy* 'Korean society' and *hankwuke* 'Korean language,' however, the genitive use of *wuli* constructs an interactional relationship between writers and readers in the text by inviting readers into the text and making them participants in the argument. Sentence (3) provides the context in which *wuli* is presented as "a reader in the text" (Thompson, 2001) looking at the discourse structure and participating in interpretation within the text.

Example 5.21: *wuli* ‘we, our’

(1) **우리**는 글을 쓸 때 자신의 머릿속에서 나오는 생각을 정리할 뿐만 아니라, 자료 수집과 비판적 독서, 토론 등의 과정을 거쳐 내용을 풍부화하는데, 이것이 바로 상호 텍스트적 지식을 얻는 과정이라고 할 수 있다.
wuli*nun kulul ssul ttay casinuy melissokeyse naonun sayngkakul cenglihal ppwunman anila, calyo swucipkwa piphancek tokse, tholon tunguy kwacengul kechye nayyongul phwungpwuhwahanuntey, ikesi palo sangho theyksuthucek cisikul etnun kwacengilako hal swu issta*.
‘When **we** write, we not only organize thoughts in our minds, but also enrich the contents through processes of data collection, critical reading and discussion. This is the process of obtaining mutual text knowledge.’ (KL: 40)

(2) 사실상 **우리** 사회에 여전히 모국어화자 중심의 인식이 지배적이라는 것을 보여준다.
sasilsang ***wuli*** *sahoyey yecenhi mokwukehwaca cwungsimuy insiki cipaycekilanun kesul poyecwunta*.
‘In fact, (it) shows that the native speaker-centered perception still dominates in our society.’ (KL: 37)

(3) 그러나 이 두 번째 해석은 **우리**가 본문의 담화구조를 보면 설득력이 현저히 떨어지게 된다.
kulena i twu penccay haysekun ***wuli****ka ponmwunuy tamhwakwucolul pomyen seltuklyeki hyencehi ttelecikey toynta.*
‘However, when we look at the discourse structure of the text, this second interpretation is much less persuasive.’ (KL: 07)

Given the low frequency of self-mentions in the Korean corpus, however, it is clear that the avoidance of self-mention is the most preferred convention with which members of applied linguistics in Korean agree for referring to themselves. The lack or absence of self-mention can be attributed to the culture of academic writing in Korean as a discourse community, in which the writer’s explicit presence and direct references to readers with pronouns are conventionally avoided (D-S. Park, 2008; E. Choi, 2009; S. Park, 2013). According to C-K. Kim (2009), highly influenced by Neo-Confucianism, intellectual people in the Joseon Dynasty believed that they would become *junzi* ‘gentleman, superior person’ with ethical maturity and self-knowledge through self-reflection and self-practice. In other words, people who studied stayed in the center

of their own study in pre-modern society. In the early 1990, however, with the introduction of Western modern science, the traditional academic culture of a writer-centered approach was abandoned. Keeping "I" as a subject of a research isolated and distant from the text, 'generalization' and 'objectivity' became the central principles and ideal norms of research articles in the Korean academic discourse community. The notion of objectivity, which first arose in the field of science, has prevailed in all fields of academic research, and it has formed certain linguistic conventions shared by members of the Korean academic discourse community. In the Korean academic discourse community, avoidance of self-mention has been discussed as an important strategy to maintain the "objective" perspective of the author in academic writing, along with other strategies (e.g., nominal style, impersonalization, passive constructions, and/or progress constructions) (E. Choi, 2009; J. Shin, 2013; Kim & Bae, 2017a, 2017b).

One other possible reason for the absence of self-mention is a characteristic of the Korean language itself. The characteristic of "ellipsis," which often omits the constituents of a sentence, even major constituents (Sohn, 1999, p. 401), allows this "faceless" (Biber & Finegan, 1989)[17] in academic writing in Korean. Since Korean is a situation-oriented language, the ellipsis is very common, as long as it does not cause confusion or a difference in meaning. This characteristic of Korean in academic writing suggests a 'face-hidden' approach in Korean academic writing, rather than "faceless". A lack of explicit presence of the writer does not necessarily mean that there is no face or identity as a writer, because members of the Korean academic community in the KL corpus showed alternative ways to indicate themselves without using first-person pronouns. Incorporating non-personal nouns such as *pon yenkwu* 'this study' and *ponko* 'this article' as a subject, with themselves hidden, is the most preferred way to avoid referring to

[17] The term "faceless" is used to define texts appeared to be unmarked with stance expressions in their work (Biber & Finegan, 1989).

themselves using first-person pronouns. As Figure 5.14 illustrates, whereas the subjective and genitive cases of *wuli* were used with frequencies of only 23 and 44, respectively, *pon yenkwu* 'this study' and *ponko* 'this article' occurred with frequencies of 241 and 159, respectively.

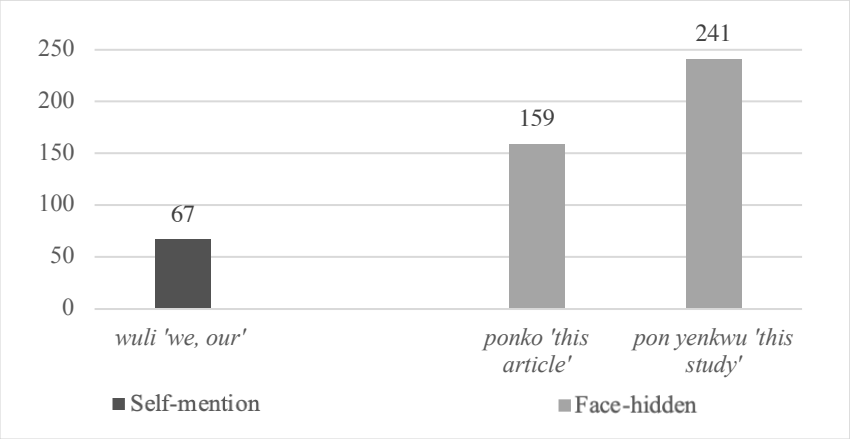

Figure 5.14. Frequency of self-mention and face-hidden in the Korean Corpus

Example 5.22: *ponko* & *pon yenkwu*

(1) **본고**는 구체적으로 아래의 항목들을 분석하고자 한다. 첫째, 한국어 교재에 나타난 전체 어휘의 품사 분포를 살피고자 한다. 이를 통해 품사별 어휘 비중을 파악할 수 있다.
ponko*nun kwucheycekulo alayuy hangmoktulul pwunsekhakoca hanta. chesccay, hankwuke kyocayey nathanan cenchey ehwiuy phwumsa pwunpholul salphikoca hanta. ilul thonghay phwumsapyel ehwi picwungul phaakhal swu issta.*
'**This article** analyzes the following items in detail. First, (I) want to look at the distribution of parts of speech in the entire Korean vocabulary. In this way, (I) can figure out the proportion of vocabulary of each part of speech.' (KL: 13)

(2) **본 연구**는 중국어 담화표지어를 분류하고 그에 대응하는 한국어의 대응 방식을 대조, 분석할 것이다.
pon yenkwu*nun cwungkwuke tamhwaphyocielul pwunlyuhako kuey tayunghanun hankwukeuy tayung pangsikul tayco, pwunsekhal kesita.*
'**This study** will classify Chinese discourse markers and compare and contrast corresponding Korean responses.' (KL: 08)

In the examples above, Sentence (1) demonstrates how *ponko* 'this article' is employed in a research article, instead of using the first-person pronoun. The first sentence *ponko* is followed by two sentences with the agent—the first-person pronoun in this case—omitted. Sentence (2) also illustrates the way the non-personal noun *pon yenkwu* 'this study' acts as an agent, with the

real agent ‘I’ hidden. Incorporating non-personal nouns such as *ponko* ‘this article,’ *pon yenkwu* ‘this study’ and *i nonmwun* ‘this research paper’ allows for ‘objectivity’ and ‘neutrality,’ which is one of the norms held by members of the Korean academic discourse community. It suggests that the Korean L1 writers from the corpus used for this study prefer to express themselves in a discreet way and to position themselves implicitly rather than explicitly.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The overarching goal of this dissertation is to investigate quantitatively and qualitatively the ways in which the authorial stance is realized linguistically in the academic discourse communities of applied linguistics of English and Korean. In order to accomplish this goal, I constructed comparable corpora consisting of 100 published research articles of applied linguistics written in English and Korean (see Chapter 3). Based on the quantitative analysis results of the corpora of research articles, this study examined statistical similarities and differences in a comparison of stance markers between the English and Korean corpora. The goals of Section 6.2 are to summarize and further discuss the findings described in previous chapters in terms of similarities and differences between English and Korean applied linguistics academic discourse communities. The theoretical and pedagogical implications of this study for second language learners and new members of the Korean applied linguistics community will be presented in Section 6.3. In Section 6.4, finally, I provide suggestions for further research on cross-cultural and cross-linguistic study of the use of metadiscourse in academic writing.

6.2 Summary of Findings: Similarities and Differences

In Chapter 4, the results of descriptive statistics showed that more hedges and attitude markers were employed in the Korean corpus than in the English corpus, and more stance markers in boosters and self-mention were observed in the English corpus than in the Korean corpus. Among all four stance markers, hedges were the most frequently employed stance marker, reflecting a similar pattern of percentage distribution of stance markers (i.e., hedges > boosters > attitude markers > self-mention) that appears in both corpora. According to the results

of inferential statistics results, significant differences were observed in three stance markers – boosters, attitude markers and self-mentions, and the largest statistical difference ($z = 5.942$) was identified in self-mentions between the English and Korean corpora. The statistical differences indicated that more boosters and self-mention were identified in the English corpus than in the Korean corpus, and more stance markers were involved in attitude markers in the Korean data than in the English data. Even so, no significant difference was found in hedges between the two corpora. In sum, the quantitative statistical analysis revealed that English and Korean stance markers were employed both similarly (i.e., hedges) and differently (i.e., boosters, attitude markers and self-mentions) from a statistical perspective.

Taking both quantitative and qualitative analysis approach, Chapter 5 discusses the linguistic features of stance markers in both corpora and the cultural rationale behind them. One of the most salient similarities between the two academic communities was 'indirectness.' Members of the English and Korean applied linguistics communities used hedges most commonly (39.26% and 43.93%, respectively), and modal verbs most frequently. The function of hedges has been explained to express authors' tentativeness and uncertainty; however, it should be noted that the rationale behind of the use hedges, especially modal verbs, is to tone down and moderate the proposition. Indirectness was featured in both corpora, but more linguistic items featuring indirectness were observed in the Korean data. Whereas English data contain otherness in 5.76% of total English hedges, Korean otherness (e.g., *pota* 'see,' *hata* 'do,' *nathanata* 'appear' and *uymihata* 'mean') occurred second most frequently, accounting for 22.18% of the total hedges in the Korean corpus, to bring indirectness into the proposition. The co-occurrence of multiple hedges or boosters was also a feature of hedges in Korean for indirectness in the academic community of applied linguistics. Due to linguistic restrictions

and/or discoursal limitations, however, the co-occurrence of multiple hedges or boosters was a not common practice in the English corpus.

Another similarity between the applied linguistics communities in English and Korean was the objective perspective in the use of stance markers. 'Objectivity' plays an important role in the linguistic choice of modal verbs. With its broad scope of use, including both subjectivity and objectivity, for example, the English booster *should* appeared more frequently than *must,* which is the subjective-oriented necessity modal verb. Another example is the frequent use of the Korean hedge assumption device *-ul/l kes*, which expresses the author's belief that his/her proposition is true and brings objectivity into the proposition. Agentless passive construction in the English language also allows for objectivity because it allows the agent of the action to hide behind it, focusing on the action itself. Due to the flexible word order in Korean, however, the agentless passive construction is not incorporated as often in the Korean data. In the Korean data, otherness is a preferred practice to feature objectivity in that it quotes the author's own argument in an indirect quotation format 'taking a third-person perspective.' The avoidance of the first-person pronoun in the subject position is another linguistic practice of objectivity, and it will be discussed in the final paragraph.

The rhetorical difference between the English and Korean academic discourse communities was also discussed. Although the English corpus contains more affect markers (e.g., *even*, *interesting* and *surprising*), more frequent use of negative evaluation markers occurred in the Korean corpus. The reason why may be the difference in the rhetorical structures of the two academic discourse communities. Whereas the rhetorical practice in the English academic discourse community focuses on describing the present situation to emphasize the validity of research, members of the Korean academic discourse community incorporate more

evaluative practices to construct the importance of research by evaluating the limitations of the previous or the present study. The most salient difference between the two corpora was observed in the use of self-mention in terms of both quantitative and qualitative results. This difference shows not only the cross-linguistic difference, but also cross-cultural difference between the two academic communities. From a cross-linguistic perspective, this difference is attributed to the structural difference between the two languages, because the ellipsis of the subject in Korean allows the author to keep him or herself as an agent of a research distant from the proposition, and to maintain his/her objective perspective toward the proposition. The preference for the first-person plural pronoun shows the cultural differences between the academic communities of the two languages.

The collectivistic culture of Korea has influenced the culture of the academic discourse community in Korean, and it is reflected in the preferred use of the first-person plural pronoun over the first-person singular pronoun. In contrast, members of the English applied linguistics community, holding a stronger individualistic value, showed a tendency to choose the first-person singular more frequently, presenting the authorial identity explicitly in the text.

6.3 Implications of the Study

The statistical result of hedges and boosters in the present study is not consistent with previous discussion (Vassileva, 2001; Zarei & Mansoori, 2007, 2011; Hu & Cao, 2011; Sanjaya, 2013) on the size of readership. According to Hyland (2005a, 200b), boosters are expressions used “to mark involvement with the topic and solidarity with their audience” (2005b, p. 179). In other words, the smaller the size of the community’s readership, the stronger the solidarity among members of the community, which allows for more use of boosters in academic writing. The English applied linguistics journals selected for the present study were published

internationally, and authors of research papers could be more diverse; however, almost all of the papers in Korean journals of applied linguistics were written by native speakers of Korean, and all of the journals were published locally in Korea. Considering the readership sizes of applied linguistics journals between the Korean and English corpora, the use of boosters in the Korean corpus should have been higher than that in the English corpus. However, comparative analysis between English and Korean boosters revealed that the proportion of boosters (32.445%) among all stance markers in the English corpus was higher than that of Korean boosters (28.721%) among all stance markers in those data. Instead, members of the community of Korean applied linguistics chose more hedges (43.924%) than did those in the English applied linguistics community (39.257%). This result implies that the culture and values of each local academic discourse community play a more important role in the determination of stance markers than does readership size.

This study has also contributed valuable insights into pedagogical practice. Although this dissertation study is not concerned with second language (L2) academic writing, the study set out to provide new members of the Korean applied linguistics community with the conventions and values shared by current members of the community. Previous studies have discussed the L2 speaker's lack of knowledge of metadiscourse in academic writing (Hyland & Milton, 1997; Schleppegrell, 2004) and their lack of solidarity as members of an academic discourse community (Beaufort & Williams, 2005; Wardle, 2009). As a matter of fact, not only L2 learners but also new members of an academic discourse have difficulty incorporating the unique linguistic conventions and understanding the cultural norms behind the specific lexis agreed on by the members of the academic discourse community. Even Korean L1 speakers have been told not to use the first-person singular pronoun as a subject in academic writing without knowing

and understanding the cultural rationale behind it. I hope all new members of the Korean applied linguistics community can benefit from the findings of the study by exploring the linguistic features and understanding the cultural values behind them.

6.4 Limitation and Suggestions for Future Research

The limitation that may be explored in future research concerns the size of the corpus sample. In order to examine stance markers employed in academic writing quantitatively and qualitatively, the data were compiled on the basis of a relatively small corpora of 100 samples of published research articles taken from ten prestigious journals. The findings presented here should not be generalized beyond that scope. In order to increase the generalizability of the findings, future research should be associated with a larger corpus containing more samples.

Another issue is attributable to the structural differences between the English and Korean languages in counting words. As explained in Chapter 4.4, different spacing systems between the English and Korean languages resulted in non-parallel data in terms of normalized frequency. In this respect, this study focused on the overall pattern and tendency of stance markers employed in each corpus, instead of comparing normalized frequencies between two corpora. This structural difference may be the reason why the results of previous studies were inconsistent in terms of frequencies, and this limitation suggests the need for further research into the contrastive study under the same counting system.

Another direction for future study would be to go beyond the cross-linguistic and cross-cultural comparisons. By comparing the two academic discourses, this dissertation study has provided valuable insight into the Korean applied linguistics community; however, further cross-disciplinary study is suggested to confirm the findings of this study as a disciplinary feature. Further research should investigate the use of metadiscourse not only cross-linguistically and

cross-culturally, but also from a cross-disciplinary perspective, because a cross-linguistic and cross-disciplinary study can provide a better and more solid understanding of each disciplinary community. Since this study deals with applied linguistics, which is a 'soft science,' examining an academic discourse community from the 'hard sciences' would make a good comparison, especially considering the findings of the previous cross-disciplinary studies (Hyland, 2005b; Zarei & Mansoori, 2007; Abdi, 2009; Taki & Jafarpour, 2012; Sanjaya, 2013).

I hope this dissertation study sheds some light on the linguistic and cultural features of the academic discourse community of Korean applied linguistics, and serves as a foundation that contributes to further research on the academic discourse community in Korean.

APPENDIX I: Linguistic Items of Stance markers in English

Hedges

Possibility	*may*, *could*, *might*, *possible*, *likely*, *perhaps*, *plausible*, *possibly*, *probably*, *probable*	
Approximation	**Non-entirety**	*generally*, *typically*, *almost*, *usually*, *largely*, typical, *in general*, *mostly*, *mainly*, *not always*, *broadly*, *in most cases*, *on the whole*
	Frequency	*often*, *frequently*, *sometimes*
	Degree	*rather*, *around*, *approximately*, *quite*, *somewhat*, *fairly*, *roughly*, *about*, *certain extent*, *certain level*
Assumption	*would*, *appear*, *seem*, *tend to*, *assume*, *apparently*, *assumed*, *unlikely*, *presumably*, *supposed*, *estimated*, *maybe*, *estimate*, *ought*, *po*stulate*d*	
Otherness	*indicate*, *indicated*	
Limitation	*relatively*, *felt*, *feel*, *believed*, *thought*, *in my opinion*, *in my view*, *in our view*, *to my knowledge*	
Uncertainty	*unclear*, *doubt*, *uncertain*, *suspect*	

Boosters

Verification	*suggest*, *show*, *find*, *demonstrate*, *found*, *shown*, *reveal*, *confirmed*, *suggested*, *evident*, *prove*, *demonstrated*, *proved*, *revealed*, *evidently*
Certainty	*certain*, *clear*, *indeed*, *in fact*, *establish*, *know*, *actually*, *known*, *clearly*, *believe*, *established*, *true*, *of course*, *apparent*, *never*, *certainly*, *always*, *obvious*, *realized*, *realize*, *tr*uly, *sure*, *obviously*, *no doubt*, *undoubtedly*, *surely*, *think*, *definitely*, *undeniably*
Necessity	*should*, *must*, *need to*, *be needed*, *have to*, *necessary*, *ought to*
Emphasis	*especially*, *highly*, *in particular*, *completely*, *really*, *considerably*, *greatly*, *overwhelmingly*, *enormously*, *immensely*, *absolutely*

Attitude Markers

Evaluation	**Positive**	*important*, *appropriate*, *significantly*, *effective*, *significant*, *useful*, *rich*, *essential*, *enough*, *meaningful*, *effectively*, *valuable*, *systematic*, *easily*, *sufficient*, *correctly*, *importantly*, *appropriately*, *essentially*, *ideal*, *desirable*, *easy*, *readily*, *in-depth*, *reasonable*, *systematically*, *meaningfully*, *logical*, *perfectly*, *coherent*, *usefully*, *ample*, *remarkable*, *properly*, *abundant*, *perfect*, *decisive*, *excellent*, *remarkably*, *smoothly*, *favorable*, *smooth*, *indispensable*
	Negative	*limited*, *difficult*, *limitation*, *insufficient*, *ambiguous*, *complicated*, *inappropriate*, *complex*, *incorrectly*, *poor*, *vague*, *restrictive*, *hard*, *inappropriately*, *difficulty*, *vaguely*, *excessively*, *awkward*
	Neutral	*unique*, *typical*, *close*, *representative*, *subtle*, *sensitive*, *distinctive*, *susceptible*
Affect	*even*, *interesting*, *surprising*, *interestingly*, *surprisingly*, *unfortunately*, *striking*, *dramatic*, *surprised*, *understandable*, *dramatically*, *fortunately*, *strikingly*, *curious*, *hopefully*, *disappointed*, *shocked*, *fortunate*, *satisfactory*, *satisfying*	
Position	*expected*, *agreed*, *agree*, *unexpected*, *admittedly*, *preferable*, *prefer*, *disagreed*, *disagree*	

Self-mention

First-person singular	*I*, *my*, *me*
First-person Plural	*we*, *our*, *us*

APPENDIX II: Linguistic Items of Stance markers in Korean

Hedges

Possibility	*swu iss* 'possible, might,' *kanungseng* 'possibility'	
Approximation	**Non-entirety**	*cwulo* 'mostly, mainly,' *keuy* 'almost, nearly,' *taypwupwun* 'mostly,' *taycheylo* 'generally, *cwung hana* 'one of,' *cenpancek* 'general,' *cenpancekulo* 'generally,' *taycheycekulo* 'in general'
	Degree	*com te* 'a little more,' *enu cengto* 'to some degree,' *taso* 'somewhat,' *yak* 'about,' *tumwulta* 'unusual,' *cokum* 'some, a little,' *yakkan* 'a little,' *tumwulkey* 'rarely,' *kalyang* 'about,' *cokumssik* 'little by little,' *tasokan* 'somewhat,' *yakkan* 'a little,' *yakkanssik* 'a little'
	Frequency	*cacwu* 'often,' *pinpenhakey* 'frequently,' *pinpenhi* 'frequently,' *pinpenhata* 'frequent,' *congcong* 'sometimes'
Otherness	*pota* 'see,' *hata* 'do,' *nathanata* 'appear,' *uymihata* 'mean,' *malhata* 'tell,' *sisahata* 'imply,' *sayngkaktoyta* 'be thought,' *ttushata* 'mean,' *haysekhata* 'interprete,' *haysektoyta* 'be interpreted,' *selmyenghata* 'explain,' *allyecwuta* 'tell,' *selmyengtoyta* 'was explained,' *salyotoyta* 'be thought,' *haysek* 'analysis'	
Assumption	*-ul/ l kes* 'would, possible,' *keyss* 'would,' *kyenghyang* 'tendency,' *yangsang* 'aspect,' *tus hata* 'look like,' *cimcakhata* 'guess,' *phyen* 'kind of,' *yeysanghata* 'anticipate,' *yeysangtoyta* 'be anticipated,' *chwuchukhata* 'conjecture,' *kes kathta* 'seems like,' *chwuchuktoyta* 'be conjectured,' *amato* 'perhaps,' *ch*wucengtoyta 'be estimated,' *yeychuktoyta* 'predict,' *chukmyen* 'side,' *chwucenghata* 'estimate,' *cimcaktoyta* 'guess,' *cimcak* 'guess,' *yeysang* 'prediction,' *yeychuk* 'prediction,' *chwuchuk* 'supposition,' *yeychukhata* 'predict'	
Limitation	*sangtaycekulo* 'relatively,' *pikyocek* 'relatively,' *sayngkakhata* 'think'	
Uncertainty	*pwulmyenghwakhata* 'unclear,' *pwulpwunmyenghata* 'indistinct'	

Boosters

Emphasis	*thukhi* 'especially,' *n/un kesita* 'that is, thing is,' *maywu* 'very,' pota 'more,' *tewuk* 'more,' *hwelssin* 'much,' *sangtanghi* 'considerably,' *khukey* 'very,' *ohilye* 'rather,' *pantusi* 'no matter what,' *hwalpalhakey* 'actively,' *hwalpalhata* 'active,' *manhi* 'a lot,' *hwalpalhi* 'actively,' *acwu* 'very,' *thukpyelhi* 'specially,' *sangtanghata* 'considerable,' *wancenhi* 'completely,' *nemwu* 'too,' *pwulkwahata* 'excessively,' *aptocek* 'overwhelming,' *kanghakey* 'hard,' *weltunghi* 'out of common,' *kukhi* 'extremely,' *taytanhi* 'very,' *pwulkwa* 'only,' *wancenhakey* 'perfectly,' *weltunghakey* 'greatly,' *kupsokhi* 'rapidly,' *kupsoktolo* 'rapidly,' *cikukhi* 'extremely,' *nemwuna* 'very,' *kupsokhakey* 'rapidly,' *wenak* 'too,' *wancenhata* 'perfect'
Certainty	*alta* 'know,' *myengsicek* 'explicit,' *sasil* 'fact,' *twutulecita* 'remarkable,' *myenghwakhi* 'clearly,' *cenhye* 'never,' *pakkey* 'only,' *myenghwakhakey* 'clearly,' *pwunmyenghata* 'clear,' *allyecita* 'become known,' *pwunmyenghakey* 'clearly,' *myenghwakhata* 'clear,' *hyencehi* 'noticeably,' *twutulecikey* 'remarkably,' *sasilsang* 'in fact,' *sasil* 'fact,' *pwunmyenghi* 'clearly,' *hyencehakey* 'remarkably,' *ttwulyeshakey* 'clearly,' *ttwulyesi* 'clearly,' *pwunmyeng* 'clearly,' *hyencehata* 'remarkable,' *ttwulyeshata* 'clear,' *thullimepsta* 'certain,' *yesilhi* 'clearly,' *kukmyenghakey* 'clearly'
Necessity	-*e/aya hata* 'should, must,' *philyoka issta* 'necessary,' *yokwutoyta* 'be required,' *yokwuhata* 'require,' *yokwu* 'require'
Verification	*palkhita* 'reveal,' *hwakinhata* 'confirm,' *tulenata* 'reveal,' *hwakintoyta* 'be confirmed,' *cungmyenghata* 'prove,' *kemcungtoyta* 'be verified,' *ip*cunghata 'prove,' *cungmyengtoyta* 'be proved,' *nathanayta* 'demostrate'

Attitude Markers

Evaluation	**Positive**	*cwungyohata* 'important,' *yuuymihata* 'significant,' *hyokwacek* 'effective,' *cekcelhata* 'appropriate,' *cwuyo* 'major,' *swipkey* 'easily,' *nonlicek* 'logical,' *uyuy* 'significance,' *cwungyoseng* 'importance,' *cekhaphata* 'suitable,' *philswucek* 'essential,' *cheykyeycek* 'systematic,' *yuyonghata* 'useful,' *kachi* 'value,' *uymi* 'meaningful,' *cekkukcek* 'active,' *chwungpwunhi* 'enough,' *swipta* 'easy,' *yuuymihakey* 'significantly,' *palamcikhata* 'desirable,' *cwungyo* 'important,' *pwuhaphata* 'coincide,' *philswu* 'indispensable,' *chwungpwunhata* 'enough,' *cekcelhakey* 'properly,' *thatangseng* 'validity,' *ttwienata* 'excellent,' *cwungyohakey* 'importantly,' *wusencek* 'prior,' *thatanghata* 'appropriate,' *yongihata* 'easy,' *chapyelhwa* 'differentiation,' *simto* 'in-depth,' *cekcelhi* 'properly,' *yongihakey* 'easily,' *kyelcengcek* 'decisive,' *wuswuhata* 'excellent,' *cwuyohata* 'major,' *cengtangseng* 'justification,' *cekcelseng* 'appropriacy,' *kiphi* 'in-depth,' *isangcek* 'ideal,' *yuyongseng* 'utility,' *yuyonghakey* 'usefully,' *uhyohata* 'valid,' *swuwelhakey* 'easily,' *wanpyekhakey* 'perfectly,' *sonswipkey* 'easily,' *myenglyohakey* 'clearly,' *yulihata* 'advantageous,' *wanpyekhata* 'perfect,' *swuwelhata* 'easy,' *wuswuseng* 'excellence,' *wuwelhata* 'superior,' *cwuyohakey* 'primally,' *thatanghakey* 'reasonably,' *wanpyekhi* 'perfectly,' *sonswipta* 'easy,' *wuwel* 'superiority,' *yuuymicek* 'significant'
	Negative	*elyepta* 'difficult,' *pwucokhata* 'insufficient,' *hankyey* 'limitation,' *pokcaphata* 'complicated,' *pwucok* 'lack,' *himtulta* 'hard,' *elyewum* 'difficulty,' *esaykhata* 'awkward,' *ceyhancek* 'limited,' *mwuli* 'unreasonable,' *cinachikey* 'excessively,' *mimihata* 'insignificant,' *hankyeycem* 'uppermost limit,' *pinyakhata* 'poor,' *pokcapseng* 'complexity,' *aymayhata* 'vague,' *pwulchwungpwunhat*a 'insufficient,' *mihuphata* 'insufficient,' *kwatohakey* 'excessively,' *simkakhakey* 'critically,' *pwucekcelhata* 'inappropriate,' *kwatohata* 'excessive,' *simkakhata* 'critical,' *nanhayhata* 'difficult,' *pinyakhakey* 'meanly,' *kuktancek* 'extreme,' *simkakseng* 'seriousness,' *hankyeyseng* 'limitation'

	Neutral	*thukcingcek* ‘distinctive,’ *tayphyocek* ‘representative,’ *cenhyengcek* ‘typical,’ *cenhyengseng* ‘typicality,’ *kiphta* ‘deep,’ *milcephata* ‘close,’ *minkamhata* ‘sensitive,’ *thukihata* ‘unique,’ *picenhyengcek* ‘atypical,’ *tokchangcek* ‘original,’ *milcephakey* ‘closely,’ *kunponcek* ‘fundamental,’ *minkamhakey* ‘sensitively,’ *tokchangseng* ‘originality,’ *milcephi* ‘closely,’ *kunpon* ‘fundamental,’ *thukiseng* ‘uniqueness,’ *kiphi* ‘deeply’
Affect	*kwansim* ‘attention,’ *hungmilopta* ‘interesting,’ *hungmi* ‘interesting,’ *mancokto* ‘satisfaction,’ *mancokhata* ‘be satisfied,’ *simcie* ‘even,’ *cocha* ‘even,’ *aswiwum* ‘feel something lacking,’ *mancoksulepta* ‘be satisfied,’ *uyoy* ‘suprise,’ *celsilhi* ‘desperately,’ *celsilhata* ‘desperate,’ *kwansimsa* ‘interest,’ *mancoksikhita* ‘satisfy,’ *aswipta* ‘feel something lacking,’ *celsilhakey* ‘desperately,’ *konlanhata* ‘have difficulty’	
Position	*kitayhata* ‘expect,’ *senhohata* ‘prefer,’ *tanswunhi* ‘simply,’ *senhoto* ‘preference,’ *kitaytoyta* ‘be expected,’ *senhotoyta* ‘be preferred,’ *senho* ‘preference,’ *tonguyhata* ‘agree,’ *kitay* ‘expectation’	

Self-mention

First-person singular	N/A
First-person Plural	*wuli* ‘we, our’

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